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ART I.—HUNGARY IN 1852.

THE territory of modern Hungary embraces the whole of ancient Pannonia, and about two-thirds of Dacia. It is, in general, a vast plain, sloping from the north, and having for its boundaries the rivers Danube and Save on the south, separating it from Turkey, and on the east, north and west, in part, the Carpathian mountains, which stretch from the Danube, near Presburg, in the form of a circle, to the north, east and south, until they arrive at the Danube again, at the place called the Iron Gates. On the extreme west, south of the Danube, the boundary is formed by the Leitha mountains, an arm of the Alps.

The area of Hungary is about 100,000 square miles, most of which is exceedingly fertile, well watered with navigable rivers, except in the east, and enjoying a fine climate. The whole country extends from lat.  $44^{\circ} 5'$  on the south, to lat.  $49^{\circ} 39'$  on the north, and between  $14\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  and  $26\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  of east longitude. The latitude of the country, therefore, is that of Maine and the southern parts of Canada.

All the numerous rivers of Hungary flow in a southeast direction, generally into the Danube. Besides the Danube, the other navigable rivers are the Theisse, the most important, navigable about 500 miles. The Save is navigable for vessels of 200 tons, up as far as the mouth of the Kulpa; and the Drave is navigable 280 miles. It is only within a few years past that steam navigation has been introduced upon the Danube and its tributaries. There is now established at Vienna, a navigation company, called "The Austrian Lloyd," which has now over fifty steamboats navigating the Danube and its tributaries. These boats are small, but neat, and perform the whole route between Vienna and Constantinople, through the Black Sea.

They are managed by English engineers. The navigation of the Danube by steamboats only dates back as far as 1830. Before that time the stream was descended by miserable boats and rafts, like the flatboats of the Mississippi. They also shared the same fate at the end of the voyage—that of being knocked to pieces for fire-wood. The trip up the river was performed in a species of canal boats, drawn slowly by some twenty or thirty horses, as the river is rapid. The introduction of steamers has, of late years, greatly improved the trade and travel of the Danube. Count *Szechenyi* has been the great master-spirit in these improvements, it being by him that the "Austrian Lloyd" was firmly established. It is said that the Austrian government are just on the point, if they have not already done so, of wresting forcibly from the hands of the company the whole of their steamers, and of assuming the entire navigation, it not wishing to have the interior communications of Hungary in the hands of any but Austrian officers.\*

The navigation of the Danube is much obstructed in many parts, by the mill-boats afloat upon it. These boats are double, like some of our ferry-boats, with the mill-wheel, moved by the rapidity of the current, between the two. The other navigable rivers, particularly the *Theisse*, are very crooked, and subject to sudden risings.

It is not our purpose, in this paper, to dwell very extensively on the physical character and advantages of Hungary, but to devote most of our space to the present political condition of that unfortunate country.

To understand more fully the present state of political affairs in Hungary, it will be necessary to glance briefly at its political condition prior to the unfortunate revolution of 1848.

Passing over the more early periods of Hungarian history, in the year 1526, Louis II., king of Hungary, being totally defeated and slain by the Turks, in the battle of Mohaoz, by which he lost a large portion of his dominions, his brother-in-law, Ferdinand I., of Austria, succeeded to the throne, and was crowned king of Hungary, in 1527, since which time the Emperor of Austria has always been the king of Hungary. The Austrian princes have always been noted for their despotic conduct towards Hungary. In 1683, so oppressive had they become, that the Hungarian nobles, commanded by *Tekeli*, called in the Turks to aid them in shaking off the Austrian servitude. The Austrians, however, succeeded in driving out the Turks, and in settling the differences of the two countries by the treaties of *Carlowitz* and *Passarowitz*, in 1718. Hungary has since been on tolerably amicable terms with Austria until the last disastrous revolution. Austria, however, has never been disposed to concede measures sufficiently liberal to satisfy the leading politicians and reformers of Hungary.

The connection of Hungary with Austria was a very peculiar one. It was "as if Mexico should voluntarily unite herself with the United

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\* *Brace's Hungary*, p. 74.

States, but still retaining not only her rights, as one state of the Union, but many other privileges which had belonged to her as an independent power, leaving to us the power of laying tariff duties and raising militia from her people, while we assumed her enemies as ours, and used her forces to repel any attack upon the Union. Further than this we must not go; we must lay no taxes on Mexico without the consent of her legislature; our postal system, our criminal law, and the jurisdiction of our courts are not to extend over her territory, and any great measure affecting the country must first be presented to her legislature before it could be effective; and lastly, our President, to be the legal President of Mexico, must be inaugurated there in Mexico. Such a union would be in its principal features a copy of the union which has existed between Austria and Hungary for centuries."\*

The old Hungarian constitution, which existed in full force until 1848, was strictly feudal in all its parts, recognizing and enforcing, in all its totality, the monstrous, barbarous, and oppressive feudal system of the middle ages. It was dangerous, however, to alter it, as Austria ever made all attempts to alter the constitution, under which Hungary united herself with Austria, a pretext for interference. The independence of the country depended on its adherence to its old feudal constitution, bad as it was, and bad as it was acknowledged to be by a large majority of the Hungarians themselves. By this constitution the entire population was divided into two classes—serfs, and nobles or freemen.

All the lands and estates of the country were by law supposed to be the property originally of the nobles, and this is the ground upon which the exactions of the feudal system were founded. The serfs, however, either held lands as their own, or occupied those held by others. The exactions made upon them were in proportion to the amount of lands which they held. The serf holding an estate of from 21 to 56 acres, called a *sessio*, was subject to the full amount of feudal labor to the noble. The serf holding a *sessio* was required to labor for the noble 104 days in a year, with hard labor, or 52 days with oxen. The serf not owning land, and only occupying alone a house and garden, was required to labor 18 days in the year; but if he occupied them with others, 12 days were required. Every *sessio* was also required to furnish annually one person for a three days' hunt, the feudal master furnishing the *materiel*. The serf was also required to keep in repair all bridges on the property of the noble, and to furnish a wagon, with two or more horses, to soldiers or travelers who might demand it of the village judge, who allowed him 53 cents for every five miles he drove, which sum was deducted from his taxes. The feudal labor of so many days' work in a year was called *robot*. The obligation to furnish a wagon was called *vorspann*, which, although abolished by the country, at the time of the late revolution, has been revived by the Austrian government.

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\* Brace's Hungary, p. 156.

The next burden of the serfs was that of the *taxes*. In the first place, the serf was obliged to pay *one-ninth* of all the principal products of his fields, of his wheat, corn, wine, and tobacco, to the noble, his hay and products of his garden alone excepted. The tax on his cottage was 40 cents a-year; then came the "domestic tax," for the support of the national parliament; and lastly, the "war-tax." The peasants or serfs were also forced to quarter the soldiery, and to furnish recruits when demanded; and they also paid a tithe to the Catholic church.

Such a system was grievous in the extreme, it must be admitted. It was, however, worse on paper than in practice, in some respects. The taxes were much lessened by the remarkable economy of the Hungarian government, as most of the noblemen taking part in it paid their own expenses, even when members of the parliament. The taxes were also greatly diminished, by there being no standing army ever supported in Hungary. "It may be doubted," says Mr. Brace, from whom we collect these facts, "whether these exactions, oppressive as they were upon the peasantry, were ever materially heavier than those which press upon the free peasantry of England now."\*

It might be supposed, that great injustice and oppression would often be practised, under such a system, by cruel nobles. This was guarded against, by allowing the serfs to carry all cases of injustice before courts of law, in which the noble was obliged to pay all expenses. In all difficulties between serf and serf, the noble decided the case; but between serf and noble, a country magistrate was called in. If the serf was destitute of counsel, (which was seldom the case, as lawyers have ever been more abundant in Hungary than in the United States' even,) the *Amtsfiscal*, or State's Counsel, was obliged to plead for him. The serf had, further, the right of appeal to the Court of the Comitatus, in certain cases, and even to the highest courts of the kingdom.

The Hungarian serf could marry as he chose. He could sell, pawn, or loan, all his property, movable or immovable—the property, however, in whose hands soever it might be, being perpetually subject to the feudal exactions. The serf, too, could buy himself free from all obligations and feudal burdens, and he could, by purchase, inheritance, or otherwise, accumulate a very considerable amount of property to himself, to the amount of 124 acres.† He also had some other minor privileges; and, indeed, his condition was greatly better than that of the serfs of Bohemia, Moravia, or in the Polish provinces of Austria. Still, however, the old feudal constitution of Hungary was the embodiment of an infamous system of oppression, for which there can be found no justification. The serfs, the great mass of the population, were deprived of all political rights, and obliged to support the idle and haughty nobility, and the expenses of a government in which they had no share.

It is not true, that all of the serfs of Hungary were of the Slavonic races, and that all of the nobles were Magyars. There are millions

\* Brace's Hungary, p. 161.

† Ibid., p. 162.



of Magyar serfs, though, it is true, that those belonging to the Slavonic races were less intelligent, energetic and independent than the Magyars. They all, however, were true serfs, and bore the same feudal burdens. That the oppression of the feudal system was great and heavily borne, is proved by the vengeance the serfs wreaked on their masters, in many parts of Hungary, during the revolution. Among the Wallachians, the serfs inflicted every species of atrocity on their Magyar masters, who, in turn, punished them with unheard-of cruelties. The servile war was, however, confined to the Wallachian serfs. In the other parts of Hungary, the peasants formed quite as efficient and patriotic a corps in the army as any other class. They were among Kossuth's most enthusiastic supporters.

The *Nobles* of Hungary are not nobles, in the sense in which the term is used in other countries, but more properly *Freemen*—a privileged class. The *nobility* in Hungary "were all those who had come to be allowed by law certain privileges of voting and holding property, which the other classes did not have. They might be boot-blacks, or hostlers, or stone-cutters; but as long as they belonged by descent to this class, they enjoyed its privileges, and were '*Nobles*,' as the German writers call them. There would be an equal propriety, however, in calling all those in our own country, having the privileges of voting and holding office, '*Nobles*,' and those deprived of them, *serfs*."\*

The privileges of the Hungarian nobles or freemen were, that they could not be imprisoned on suspicion; that in every trial their persons were sacred till sentence was pronounced, except in highway robbery, perjury, and high treason; that they could not be imprisoned for debt, or punished with corporeal punishment, and that they could appeal to the highest courts; that no person not a noble was allowed to accuse them, except through the city corporation or through his master. No one but a noble could purchase a noble's estates. All his property was exempt from taxation, from all tithes to the clergy or government, and from all payments of rates or contributions. The noble paid no tolls on bridges or highways, nor could soldiers be quartered upon him. He could dispose of his movable property as he chose, but not his inherited estates, which were secured to his family; and his descendants had the privilege of reclaiming a pawned estate, 300 years after the time of the contract.

The nobles, even if occupying the lowest position, were the exclusive possessors of all political rights. They elected all members of the National Legislature, or Diet, and all county or district officers. In all assemblies for taxing the people, regulating matters of internal government, and choosing magistrates and judges, the nobles alone had a voice. They, too, were the only ones who could hold office, even in the church, in earlier times.

At first sight, the evils that would result from such a monstrous system would be grievously oppressive; but the system has worked better than it promised, owing undoubtedly to the fact, that this

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\* Brace's Hungary, p. 228.

class of nobles or privileged persons belonged to all grades of society, and were, in general, the most able, brave, and intelligent part of the community. The nobles did not represent nationalities, but were from all classes. Of the nobles there are some 80,000 Sclavonians, Wallachians and Germans; while, on the other hand, there are several millions of Magyars who are not nobles.

The number of nobles or freemen, in 1842, was estimated by Fenyes at 550,000 in a population of 11,178,286, excluding Siebenbürgen; or nearly every twentieth person a freeman, or voter and office-holder. According to the latest statistics of Hungary, there is one freeman for every fourteen inhabitants, the feudal system now being entirely swept away.

There were also, in various parts of Hungary, what were called Free Communities, embracing large tracts of country in which the inhabitants, solely peasants, had for hundreds of years enjoyed all the political privileges of freemen without coming under the head of nobles. Such are the Jazyges, the Cumanians, the Haiducks, and the Szecklers. These send their own members to parliament, and elect all of their officers. In like manner, the cities were nearly all independent to the same extent.

The liabilities of the nobles were as follows: they were liable to extra contributions to the King, the Emperor of Austria; they could be called out, at the summons of the king, to do military duty at their own expense. These were no light burdens, and in times when wars were frequent they were quite oppressive. For instance, in 1809, the nobles, to the number of 17,000 cavalry and 22,000 infantry, were called out by the emperor, and a war-tax laid upon them of about \$7,500,000. The last great levy was made in the time of Napoleon, when he was threatening Vienna. The entire expenses of a campaign were required to be paid by the nobles; but if they were called to march out of Hungary, it was at the expense of the king.

There is still another class in Hungary, the *Magnaten*, *Magnates*, or *Lords*. They come under the head nobles, but form now an unimportant part of the nation, and are not to be confused at all, says Mr. Brace, with the large class of the privileged freemen. They are the wealthy landholders of the country, answering pretty nearly to what are called in this country the Codfish Aristocracy, or Upper Ten Thousand. Of immense wealth, they have always looked down with contempt upon the great mass of the people, and have squandered their fortunes at the Court of Vienna, or in Paris. They took no part in the revolution, and never cared anything for Hungary, except for the rents they could squeeze from their tenants, and the studs they could collect on their estates. They have ever been a race of proud, indolent, heartless drones, hanging like a mill-stone about the neck of the nation, and wishing for nothing so much as the perpetuity of the oppressive feudal system. They were always, and are now, thoroughly despised and hated by the people. At Vienna, before the revolution, their immense wealth alone gained them respect; but now, when everything Hungarian meets with "the cold shoulder" at Vienna, these proud unprincipled magnates find no favor there, and come back to Hungary only to find still less among

a brave and intelligent people whom they exultingly saw perish under the Austrian or Russian sword. They were, during the revolution, the tories of Hungary. Should another revolution be successful in Hungary—and another will come—these renegade magnates will meet with their reward. Their treatment by the Austrian government, since the revolution, is not a little singular. Many of them even took an active part in favor of Austria during the revolution; but Austria now sneers at their loyalty; they and their estates are now intolerably taxed; *gens-d'armes* and spies watch them, and they fare no better than the "rebels," so called. By way of revenge they refuse all offices, and the majority of them now live in gloomy retirement on their estates. Some of them have completely changed their political views since the revolution, and come out in opposition to Austria; but they are not to be relied on. They would favor almost any other species of government sooner than republicanism.\*

Lastly, under the old constitution, comes the *King*. The right to the crown of Hungary was hereditary in the house of Austria; and the chief prerogatives of the crown were—1st, the power of making laws, after consulting the estates assembled in the Diet, and in common with them; 2d, of assembling the Diet and dissolving it at pleasure; 3d, the highest executive authority in everything which was in accordance with the laws, and which involved no violation of them; 4th, the right of patronage, or the nomination to all bishoprics and other clerical dignities; 5th, the highest judicial authority, which the crown, however, only mediately exercised through its officers; 6th, the full power of declaring peace and war; 7th, the right of levying troops, of erecting fortresses, and of demanding warlike subsidies; 8th, the right of calling a general rising of the country for its defence, in a prescribed legal manner; 9th, the right of pardoning; 10th, the right of coining money; 11th, of granting Patents; 12th, of nominating to all offices, except those of Palatine of Hungary, of the two guardians of the crown, and of the minor county officers; 13th, of legitimizing bastards; 14th, of transferring the right of succession to a daughter, on the extinction of male heirs; 15th, the inheritance of all noblemen's estates, where there are no male heirs; 16th, the right of abrogating decrees of infancy pronounced by the courts of justice; 17th, of granting letters of prosecution; 18th, the supreme guardianship of orphans; 19th, the post; 20th, the right of sending special commissions to inquire into the faulty administration of the counties, by which the authority of the lord-lieutenant of the same was suspended. The royal commissioner sent could abrogate resolutions of the county meetings, in the king's name; suspend county officers, and institute legal proceedings against them. The royal authority further extended to the disposition of the domestic fund of each county.

Such were the prerogatives of the King of Hungary, as deduced from the Hungarian Constitution, and drawn up for the use of the Emperor's cabinet in 1831, by Baron De Baldacci. They were what

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\* Brace's Hungary, p. 81, et passim.

Austria claimed. It will be seen that many of them gave the emperor great latitude. The king claimed the right of levying custom duties at will, and accordingly surrounded the country with a barrier of protecting duties. The internal management of the cities was wholly dependent on the government, which had the power of appointing and removing their officers.

The whole of Hungary was divided into comitats or counties, answering to our states, a division made by King Stephen about the year 1000. Each county was governed by a lord-tenant, appointed by the king. There were also two deputy-tenants, who presided over all county meetings, held the supreme direction of the county police, and presided as chief judges in the county courts. The lord tenant was the only officer of a county appointed by the king; all others were chosen by the nobles or freemen. Each county and each free city sent deputies to the National Legislature or Diet. The deputies went to the Diet under strict instructions, without any will of their own, being bound to adhere to that of their constituents, to whom they applied for directions on all doubtful and difficult questions. They were also liable to recall at any time, for neglect of instructions.\*

Since the year 1562, the Hungarian Diet was divided into two chambers. Before that time the members all assembled in one body. After the division the upper chamber, called the Chamber of Magnates, consisted of—1st, the prelates, with the Archbishop of Gran at their head, as primate; 2d, the "barones et comites regni," or peers of the realm, in two classes; 3d, the great officers of the crown, with the lords-tenant of the 52 counties into which the whole country was divided; and 4th, the barons, summoned by letters royal, including every prince, count and baron of 25 years of age. The Palatine of Hungary presided over the Chamber of Magnates.

The lower chamber consisted of the deputies from the counties and towns, and an officer appointed by the crown presided over it. The first business of the Diet was to consider the propositions of the crown. The lower house could also originate propositions. The upper house could only approve or veto.

The Palatine was a viceroy, or representative of the King of Hungary, the Emperor of Austria. He resided at Buda. The Grand Chancery of Hungary had its seat at Vienna, where all government business was transacted.

To give a better idea of the internal government of Hungary, let us take a single comitat or state, for the Hungarian comitat answered to our division of state. Each state had its own provincial administration. It carried the doctrine of state rights far beyond anything known in this country. It was much more a "sovereign state" than any of ours; for it could treat with foreign powers. A Hungarian state could disapprove the acts of the Central Government, and by means of its state legislature send them back *vetoed*. As stated before, it could at any moment recall a deputy from the Diet, for violating in-

\* Paget's Hungary, vol. 1, pp. 309-412.



structions; and moreover it could reject all orders or sentences, both from Hungarian or Austrian courts, from the lord chancellor of the kingdom, from the home office, or from the Emperor of Austria himself, if it found them inconsistent with the laws of the land.\* Such powers held by a state are altogether without parallel. The veriest stickler in this country for state rights never dreamed of such as these. Even nullification itself is thrown completely in the shade. In a state of Hungary, nullification was a practical every-day affair—not a mere man of straw—a mere thing on paper.

Each state had its state legislature, composed of all the voters of the state. They met in assembly four times a year. The governor of the state, who was appointed for life by the crown, was *ex-officio* president of the legislature, and the only person who could summon the legislature.

The influence of the crown, over even the most minute affairs of the internal government of Hungary, must have been very considerable; for, besides each of the 52 states of Hungary having a governor appointed for life by the Emperor of Austria, the governor had the power of approval of all candidates for state offices; that is, out of a certain number of candidates presented by the voters, as suitable to fill the office, the governor selected three, one of whom must be chosen. The governor had the control of all the courts and police; he also held courts of his own, both civil and criminal. The execution of the acts of the legislature, as well as the orders from the state department, or home office, when approved by the legislature, was entrusted to him. All communications between the state and its deputies passed through him. He had the care of the proper division of the taxes, and the control of various charitable matters, as, for instance, of the interests of orphans; and it was his duty to summon all voters of the state, every three years, to the election of state officers. With all these powers, and holding his position independent of the people, the governors were still not allowed by the people to deviate much from the popular wish. Elections were always more or less turbulent, and the governors were often compelled to adopt measures, in a summary manner by the people, which the laws did not sanction. Popular violence was almost sure to follow any attempt of a governor to force upon the people an unpopular candidate. If we may credit the accounts of Mr. Brace, royal governors have been summarily thrown out of their windows headlong by the mob, for attempting to impose unpopular candidates on the people, or showing an improper favoritism.

The state legislature controlled all the domestic taxes, fixed the rate for each parish, and drew up the lists and classifications of the contributions to government. It regulated the schools, prisons, watched over the police, and could demand an account of all the officials, and order force to be used against such of them as resisted the sentences of courts. It settled differences between landlord and

\* Brace's Hungary, p. 252.

peasant, fixed the prices of bread and meat, ordered the levies of soldiers, and sat in judgment on all cases affecting its own dignity. It chose the members for the National Assembly, or Diet, instructed and recalled them. It discussed, and could reject, all obnoxious acts of the Diet. All communications of the state to other states, or to the general government, were made in this body. The legislature of a state was in fact virtually independent of the Diet, for it could annul its acts. Questions, too, discussed in the Diet, but left undecided, were often taken up by the state legislatures, decided, and carried into effect; and often an extra session was called to do this, the decision to stand until the next regular session.

Every third year the great state election was held, at which every officer, except the governor, was to be chosen. If we may believe the accounts of Paget, Brace, and other writers on Hungary, these triennial elections were extremely exciting and tumultuous, being accompanied by all the drinking, processions, noise, chairing, stump-speeches, political spouting, cudgels, broken heads, etc., of our American and British elections. Lives were sometimes lost. At the election the governor or his deputy presided, with his approving power. The choice was made by acclamation, except in a case where the contest ran high, when it was decided by ballot.

The subdivisions of the states were into districts, and again into parishes of districts, of which there were from four to six in each state. At the head of each district were the district judge and a board of selectmen. These divided the taxes among the single parishes, attended to the public health and safety, to the condition of roads and bridges, and to the quartering of soldiers. They formed a court for certain minor offences, and no state court could be held without their presence. The orders of the legislature and of the home office passed through them to the parish magistrates. Each parish, too, had its separate local government, as well as the district and state. It consisted of the village judge, an assistant judge, the selectmen, and clerk, all chosen by the villagers and freeholders of the parish. In their elections the lords of the manor decided what three were to be candidates for any office in the parish; but if the lords disagreed about them, the district judge decided. Many of the parishes were entirely free from the interference of the lords of the manor. In the parishes the selectmen and judges had the management of the minutest details of the government of the parish, all their acts being subject to investigation by state officers. The village judges were peasants, and liable to feudal labor, except during the term of their office. As the officers of the districts divided the taxes among the several parishes, so the officers of the parishes divided the taxes among the several individuals of the parish, and sent in their lists to the collectors. They levied the conscripts for the army, regulated the local police, executed the orders of the district judge and of the legislature, provided for the poor, and inspected the condition of the roads and bridges. They were also obliged to send in to the lord of the manor, for his approval, an estimate of the probable expenses of the coming year. If he neglected to exa-

mine it, it was examined at his expense by state officers of investigation.

Such is a brief sketch of the internal government of Hungary before the late revolution, as derived from Mr. C. L. Brace's "Hungary in 1851," and from other authorities. It will be seen, that it was a strange mixture of serfdom, democracy, aristocracy and monarchy, all forming so many discordant elements. The system was entirely too complicated for the general good, it being difficult often to attain the ends of justice, through the long course it was necessary to pursue. The central government was powerless, from the vetoing power of the state legislatures, and, in consequence, many measures of general good could never be carried out.

Mr. Brace thinks that the government was too democratic. On the contrary, it was too aristocratic. The aristocracy—the nobles—were the real rulers, and only adopted democratic forms to increase the more their power against the king. It was a constant struggle between king and noble. By democracy, we understand a government of the people; but, what kind of a democracy could that have been in Hungary before 1848, where, in a population of fourteen millions, there were only four hundred and fifty-five thousand voters, and these nobles, to whom the great mass were obliged, for no equivalent whatever, to pay feudal service?

The greatest blot on the constitution of Hungary was, its maintenance of the feudal system in all its perfection, as established in the middle ages. This system, however, it is due to Hungary to say, owed its continuance more to the grasping ambition of Austria than to the Hungarians. The latter had long been opposed to the system; but the fear of Austria kept them from making such a radical change in the constitution as the abolition of serfdom would require, for Austria would make that a pretext for a rupture. The Hungarians had long since been divided into two great parties, the *Conservatives* and the *Radicals*. The former were for maintaining the old constitution entire—1st, Because they feared that any change in it would be made a pretext, on the part of Austria, for wresting from Hungary its entire constitution: 2d, From the immense sacrifice of property that the abolition of the feudal system would require. The total amount of property invested in feudal labor in Hungary was estimated at from 90 to \$100,000,000, all of which would be sacrificed at once by abolishing the system: 3d, Many large estates were pawned for years to come on the feudal labor belonging to them; contracts had been entered into, loans made, and large sums borrowed, all based on the certainty of the continuance of feudal labor. The abolition of the system would ruin thousands—and all for a *sentiment*, the Conservatives added.

The *Radicals*, on the other hand, at the head of whom were Kosuth, Deak, and Batthyanyi, argued, that their party would suffer by the change quite as much as the Conservatives, since they too were living on feudal labor, and would share equally in the loss of the \$100,000,000 of capital vested in feudal service.

For many years the question agitated the country. The platform of the Radicals was:—

1st. Full equality before the law.

2d. An entire abolition of feudal privileges and feudal exactions from the peasants.

3d. A more general distribution of the right of suffrage.

But little progress was made for a long time on the subject. A great effort was made in 1832-36, which failed, however, in its main object, that of doing away with the feudal service altogether, but which succeeded in alleviating somewhat the oppressed condition of the serf. The official account of the changes made are given by Mr. Brace, but are too lengthy for our pages. The substance of them is, that the serf was relieved from a portion of the exactions of the noble, and better secured against much unjust and tyrannical treatment. The serf was also allowed to hold his land on an unlimited lease. The peasant was, in effect, made the owner of his land, or if not, at least the occupier for ever, upon certain conditions. The landlord could not deprive him of it; and the land, or, more strictly, the right of occupation could be transmitted to his children. The serf, however, was not relieved from forced labor.

The contest for effecting the abolition of the feudal system entirely was continued, and the enthusiasm of the Radicals gained new force from the stirring events that agitated other parts of Europe. At length, in 1848, the overwhelming power of Kossuth's eloquence, together with the general efforts of his party, carried everything before them. The feudal system was swept away entirely, and that too by the votes of large numbers, who thus voluntarily sacrificed all they possessed. The nobles, with no force to compel them, abolished at a blow the serfdom of millions of peasants, and sacrificed property to the value of at least \$100,000,000. At the same time the right of suffrage was extended, and every man, under a few appropriate conditions, was allowed to vote for all officers.

Never before were the people of Hungary so happy as at the time of this great reform; but they were not suffered to enjoy it. The war with Austria followed, and all know the result. The whole nation were trampled down by the aid of Russia, a power ever ready to block the wheels of freedom. Austria alone would have been powerless; and even with Russia to aid her, she could have done but little towards crushing the liberty of Hungary, if the Hungarians themselves had been united. Here was the grand difficulty. There was division in the ranks of the Hungarians themselves. Kossuth, though a great and good man, was not the man for the hour. He was great in the cabinet, but he was no general. He was too good a man for the work that it was necessary to perform. He lacked sternness and decision, at that time so much needed. He needed the just severity and military ability of a Washington, the sternness of a Cromwell, and the decision, bravery, and determination of a Jackson. He could plan, but he could not fight; he could convict, but he could not sign a death-warrant. He could see the foul treachery of Gorgey, but he had not the decision to bring him to justice.



If he had ordered his execution the moment his treachery was discovered, he might have saved his country. Still, with all these defects, the purity of his motives is admitted, even now, by all in Hungary. No one there casts a slur on the stainless honor of his political course.\* He has endeared himself to all in Hungary. The people idolize him. It was he who, by his devotion to freedom, and by his eloquence, obtained the reforms of 1835 and of 1848. The name of Kossuth is sacred to every Hungarian. The poorest peasant in Hungary venerates his name; for the eloquence with which he advocated their liberation from serfdom, still rings in their ears. They everywhere speak of him with raptures, and are confident that the day is not distant when he will return to liberate their country.

There is no man upon the face of the earth that Austria so much dreads as Louis Kossuth. "Even now, with Austrian soldiers in every village," says Mr. Brace, "without arms or means, despoiled of its best and bravest, the land needs but his voice to start it again into a whirlwind of revolution." Soldiers are flogged in the Austrian army for barely mentioning his name.

The condition of Hungary since the revolution may be briefly stated. The whole country is treated as a conquered province. The entire old government of Hungary was swept away at a blow—diet, states, districts, parishes and all,—and every city, town and village filled with Austrian soldiers. The judges were dismissed, and foreign soldiers put in their place. Commissioners of the crown were substituted for district judges. Every officer in the land was turned out, and a foreigner—a Bohemian or Austrian—put in his place. The Austrian police system is everywhere established. The poor people of the villages, who formerly managed their own affairs, and elected their own rulers, now are everywhere subjected to military authority. Let one imagine all the officers of Louisiana, from the governor down to the constables and watchmen, turned out of office by a foreign power, and foreign soldiers put in their stead, aided by a swarm of foreign police, and he will have a tolerable idea of the present internal government of Hungary. The system of passports or permits is also introduced, and no one can pass without them. No one is allowed to have a gun or other weapon, except by getting out a special permit. The people of Hungary were all disarmed, and forbidden to have arms; but it is supposed that large quantities of arms have been buried, or otherwise concealed in the country, in anticipation of another revolution. No man is allowed to speak against the government, and Austrians are stationed in every quarter. One cannot enter a public-house or walk the streets without being watched. The Hungarian costume is forbidden, and it is a crime to exhibit the Hungarian flag.

The Austrian postal system is introduced, and all letters directed to suspected persons are opened by the government officials.

By such means as these has the Austrian government attempted

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\* Brace's Hungary, p. 47.

to blot out the recollection of what Hungary formerly was; but these sad changes only tend to strengthen the recollections of the Hungarians and to embitter them the more against the government. Thousands of them would emigrate to America if they could get out of the country; but passports would not be given them to leave it.

The next aim of the Austrian government, since the revolution, has been to extract from the Hungarians as large a revenue as possible. The war cost Austria about \$60,000,000, and the entire debt of Austria is \$400,000,000. The Austrians are now endeavoring to liquidate by imposing a heavy taxation on the Hungarians, a thing to which they were never accustomed. They never paid over \$6,000,000 of direct taxation, a sum not very large for 15,000,000 of people. Austria commenced by monopolizing the trade in tobacco. Those who wish to raise tobacco must first get a permit from government. When the crop is about half grown government commissioners visit the field and estimate the crop. At harvest time they visit again, and take the amount of the tobacco. If it falls short of the amount of the first estimate, the poor peasant must pay the difference. But the tobacco raised is not the farmer's. It belongs to the government. He is required to carry the whole crop to the government warehouses, where he is obliged to receive what the government chooses to give him. For a lot of tobacco worth \$20 the government gives from \$3.50 to \$6. If one wishes to buy the same lot of the government, he can have it for \$35! This is a case cited by Mr. Brace. "I heard instances of government taxation," says he, "even worse than this, where the dead loss to the planter would approach 90 per cent." This is absolutely stealing; and yet this is a fair specimen of Austrian government civilization. Such plundering would disgrace Turkey, or even Mexico. Of course there is no inducement for the Hungarians to raise tobacco, and its culture is nearly abandoned.

The most singular thing of all in this, is the idea of raising a revenue by imposing a heavy duty on, or by monopolizing, the products of the soil—just as though the Hungarians or any other people would raise a crop of any thing which they knew the government would seize, at one-fourth its value, the moment it was harvested! This is another specimen of Austrian stupidity.

The next article\* taxed is wine, which pays a tax of from 50 to 75 per cent. Of course the making of wine is greatly diminished. Besides, the vineyard is taxed 5 per cent. of the value of the land.

Next, every house and garden pays a tax, and the whole male population pay a poll-tax of \$1 50 each. Such things were unknown under the Hungarian government. The result of the conquest of the country is, that, although the feudal system has no existence, the people are more oppressed than ever, as they have now no political rights whatever. They have the expenses to bear of a foreign government, more expensive than that of Hungary ever was; they are disarmed, and cannot shoot a crow in their corn-fields without a permit from government. If they wish to write they can only use stamped paper, for which they must pay the government price.

They cannot visit one another without a pass. They cannot send a letter through the mail without its being liable to be opened by the police. They cannot converse in company without being watched by an Austrian official. There is no liberty of speech, even in the pulpit, for the police are everywhere, and even dictate themes to the clergy—in short, they live under a most arbitrary, unjust and annoying military despotism. "Where now are the rights," say the Hungarian peasant, "which I had under Kossuth? Where are our elections, our officers, our judges? I could vote then. I could be chosen for an office. I could speak and act then as I chose. Where now is all this? Now I have *gens-d'armes* all the while watching me; I cannot stir without permission. I have nothing whatever to do in the government. Besides, I must pay taxes for every thing I eat, and drink, and own. Where is our freedom?"

Such is the degraded condition of Hungary in 1852. How long it will last is a matter of conjecture; but one thing is certain, Hungary is now less favorably disposed towards Austria than ever; and she never can be reconciled to her condition. Before the revolution there was a considerable party in the country who opposed the attempt to establish its independence. They joined the Austrians, and waged a cruel war upon the Magyars. The Austrians had deceived them, by representing to them that the intentions of the Magyars towards them were not good. They now see how shamefully they were deceived, and that the Magyars were their true friends. They are now as bitter against the Austrians as ever the Magyars were. Those Croats, Slavonians, and Wallachs, who, in the war with the Austrians, sided with the latter, and greatly checked and hampered the operations of the Hungarian patriots, would now, if the war were to break out again, join heart and hand with the latter.

In the last struggle, the forces of the Hungarian patriots were necessarily divided. In the south of the country they had to repel the Croats and Raizen, who kept up a guerrilla war through the agency of Austrian emissaries; in the north, the Wallachs waged a cruel peasant war from the same cause. To keep these all quiet the patriots had to maintain a divided force, that would have been sufficient to have kept the whole Russian army at bay.

Then there was the old Conservative party, and the whole body of Magnates, resisting the patriot movements and favoring the enemy. But these, too, would not now act the same part. The oppressions of the Austrians since the revolution has taught them who were their real friends. They now hate the Austrians, and favor the cause of the Magyars. They, too, would not be indifferent, or favor the Austrian cause in another struggle. "I do not hesitate to say," says Mr. Brace, "after careful observation and intercourse with every class of society, that a well-supported movement would carry with it every class, and race, and party, upon the Hungarian soil."\*

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\* Brace's Hungary, p. 401.

The Austrians conquered by taking advantage of the divisions among the Hungarians; by widening these divisions through their emissaries; and lastly, by calling in an army of 90,000 Russians to attack the divided Hungarian forces. But let now another war break out, and Hungary would stand a good chance of success. She can raise in a few days an army of 300,000 vigorous men; and besides, there are 150,000 Hungarians in the present Austrian army, who need but the word of Kossuth to make them march over into the Hungarian ranks. We say, the word of Kossuth, for there can be no doubt of the wonderful and universal attachment of almost every man in Hungary to him. His name is upon the lips of all, and the very places where he stood in their towns, while pouring forth his stirring eloquence, are venerated. If Kossuth were to appear among them now, a universal and simultaneous rising of the whole population would be the consequence. But Kossuth will wait till the favorable moment. All the Hungarians now need are arms, and arms they will have; and when Hungary once more rises—may the day be not far distant—the world will witness a struggle such as she never witnessed before. "A nation of strong men," says Mr. Brace, "embittered and maddened by years of insult, and oppression, and degradation, will then be fighting as if in despair. There will be fighting as if there was no hope, and no escape—mercy will not be thought of. I know the people, and I am sure that there is hardly a man on the Hungarian plain, from the clergyman of the village to the lowest peasant of the prairie, who will not grasp scythe or sword for this last contest. It will be the final effort—the last struggle of a nation for life." The struggle would be sublime and glorious, let its termination be what it might.

The subject of foreign aid to Hungary has been the theme of much discussion in this country since the arrival of Kossuth. That great man has been ridiculed by some, and abused by others, for asking for aid from this country to prepare the way for another struggle for Hungarian independence. For ourselves, we must and will speak out plainly on this subject. Kossuth, a poor, oppressed and exiled patriot, driven from his country, now conquered and groaning under the most cruel oppression of the Austrian government, lands upon our shore and asks us for aid. For this he has been ridiculed and abused by many calling themselves republicans. Now, what is there more natural than for the exiled Hungarian patriots to call upon other nations, favorable to liberty, for aid?—for aid in any form—material, immaterial, private or public? Certainly, there was no impropriety in so doing—not even in calling for public aid—and we of all nations should be the last to denounce Kossuth, even for asking for public aid, since we once did the same ourselves, and received such aid. France, be it said to her honor, did not turn the "cold shoulder" upon us when we asked for aid—did not denounce our agents as "humbugs," as Kossuth has been denounced. She nobly lent us material aid; and Kossuth knowing this, very naturally supposed that he would find aid in America; and the more so, be-



cause of the sympathy we had already manifested, as a nation, for the Hungarian cause.

We are far from maintaining that our government should have lent Hungary material aid, thus throwing ourselves into a foreign war with Austria. It was merely a question of expediency, and Kossuth himself did not view it in any other light. But we do maintain, that Kossuth should have been differently treated; and that our government should have drawn up, and formally promulgated to Austria, Russia, and to the world, a powerful and indignant protest against the subjugation and cruel treatment of Hungary. This course the honor of our country required. This course was the only one that would have been consistent with the public sympathy that we, as a nation, had already shown for Hungary—the only one that was consistent with our national character, our Constitution, and the spirit of our laws and government—the only one, too, that would be at all consistent with our own past conduct in the hour of need, poverty, oppression and distress; for we, be it remembered, were once the humble petitioners at the doors of a foreign nation for sympathy, support and “material aid.”

As it was, the whole conduct of our government respecting Hungary bears upon its face an appearance of insincerity; or, if not that, of a want of a proper sense of the dignity and importance of our national character, and of the sacredness of our liberties and political principles; of a disposition to suffer mere considerations of pure selfishness to govern our national conduct; of a disposition to cringe to foreign powers, and to treat the basest principles of government, and the basest acts of tyranny and oppression with *politeness*; of a fear, a mean, cowardly fear, of giving offence to the base, corrupt and inhuman despots of Austria and Russia; of an utter want of that open, manly, frank, fearless and republican character, that ought at all times to be manifest in the acts of our government, ennobling it to proclaim nobly to the world at all times the sacred principles of republican government and the rights of all men, whether in Hungary or America.

We profess to be free and independent; but is it true, or not, that our government dares not to proclaim fearlessly to the world its democratic principles, and to denounce, by public protest, the tyrannies and cruelties that are practised by other nations? One would think so, from the caution manifested by our government in respect to Kossuth and to Hungary.

The whole course of conduct of the United States towards Kossuth and Hungary has been about this: professing a deep sympathy for Hungary, our government invited Kossuth in exile to our shores, and even sent a national vessel to convey him hither. The distinguished Hungarian, of course, anticipated a most enthusiastic reception by the United States government. So far as the people were concerned, he was not disappointed. They received him in a noble manner, and gave him a hearty welcome to our shores; but not so with the government. Here he met with a coolness that was a stranger to all Hungarian ideas of hospitality. Kossuth had observed

the same cold hospitality in the British government; but it did not surprise him there, for in England he breathed the air of monarchy. It was, however, with real surprise, that he found the same coldness at Washington, the very focus of republicanism. Here he looked for a most cordial and genuine republican reception; but all was as cold as monarchy, even to the republican Governor of Hungary, who came, by express invitation, a guest to our shores. He was quietly told: "Governor Kossuth, we are very glad to see you; we sympathize deeply with you for Hungary; we acknowledge the justness, and the nobleness of your principles; we are fully sensible of the extent of your wrongs, and we would be glad to see them removed; but we are sorry, very sorry to tell you, that we can do nothing for you; we acknowledge that you have been robbed of your country, and of your natural rights, and exiled from the land of your birth—that you are our brother in the sacred cause of liberty. But still, we can do nothing for you. Material aid is entirely out of the question; and as for a further demonstration of our sympathy, it will not do. We would offend Austria and Russia if we were to speak louder than we have; and Austria, you know, is a great and powerful nation."

*Kossuth.*—And do the Americans think more of offending such an oppressive and tyrannical government as Austria, than of maintaining and diffusing their noble political principles? Are they afraid to speak, and to denounce the tyrants of the earth? If so, then have they degenerated since the glorious days of Washington.

*Government.*—No, no, Governor; you do not understand us; we are not *afraid* to speak out; but then it will not do; it is bad policy. There would be nothing gained by it, and the powers that be must always be respected.

*Kossuth.*—Ah! I see. You are afraid of offending the Austrian government, the bitterest enemy on earth to republicanism. You care less about diffusing republican principles than of the immediate benefits resulting from them. I did not know before that republicanism was so selfish. I did not believe before that America, the boasted land of freedom, could ever be made to conciliate tyrants, by suffering herself to be silent when she saw them trampling under foot the most sacred rights of man, and all of those principles the dearest to every genuine republican.

If such a dialogue as the above never actually occurred, it certainly was all thought.

Kossuth has now left our shores, probably with a favorable opinion of our people in general, whatever he may think of the foreign policy of our government. It certainly is too selfish and illiberal. We do not say, that we should promulgate republican principles, with the sword, as Mohammed did the religion of the Koran; but we do say, that standing as we do before the world, the great model of true republicanism, and perfectly independent of every nation on earth, and of all of them combined, we ought to throw aside all reserve regarding the tyrannies of other powers; we ought to denounce them loudly, and to show them no favor or respect so long as they

continue to pursue the work of trampling on the rights of men. The advocates of monarchy and despotism do not hesitate to treat our republican principles with open contempt. Why, then, should we be so circumspect—so afraid of offending despotic powers?

We shall close this paper with some statistics regarding the present population—religions, education, trade, internal improvements, manufactures, and the mineral and agricultural products of Hungary—which we derive principally from the work of Mr. Brace.

*Population.*—The latest statistics on this subject are those of Dr. Schutle, for 1850. They are as follows:

Magyars,.....	5,278,685
Slovacks, about.....	2,000,000
Croats, ".....	1,000,000
Rutheven,.....	600,000
Raizna and Schokazen,.....	1,400,000
Wallachs,.....	2,908,876
Germans,.....	1,377,484
Jews and smaller tribes, about.....	400,000

Chonawez, a writer for the Austrian government, makes the whole population 12,990,158. According to Schutle, the Jewish population of Hungary has increased more than 500 per cent. during the last 65 years. The entire population of Hungary has increased, during the last ten years, only about 13 per cent.

*Religion.*—All religions are tolerated in Hungary, and have been so ever since the reign of Joseph II., who, by a decree, dissolved 600 monasteries, and endowed with their funds various universities and schools, at the same time granting toleration to all creeds; and this liberal policy has been maintained by his successors. According to the latest statistics, the different religious sects of Hungary are as follows:

Roman Catholics,.....	6,130,188
Greek Catholics,.....	1,322,344
Protestants (Lutherans, Calvinists, and Unitarians),.....	2,900,334
Greeks, not united,.....	2,283,505
Jews,.....	244,035

All the Croats are Roman Catholics. The Ruthevens are of the Greek Church. About two-thirds of the other lesser tribes, including the Wallachs, are of the Greek Church. Of the Magyars, about seven-twelfths are Protestants; of the Slovacks, three-eighths; and of the Germans, one-fifth.

The Roman Catholic Church is governed by three archbishops and fourteen bishops. These were all members of the Diet, and well provided for. The inferior clergy are poor. Under the old constitution, the Roman Catholics had the precedence, the Archbishop of Gran being primate of all Hungary; but the orthodox Greek Church was also represented in the Diet by one archbishop, nine bishops, and two abbots. The United Greeks were represented by four bishops. The Protestants had no representation. The late revolution swept away all representation, and reduced the country to a tributary province.

The Archbishop of Gran is now the head of the Roman Catholic Church in Hungary. The Catholic clergy in Hungary are perhaps the most richly endowed in the world. The Archbishop of Gran has an annual income, valued by Springer, a German writer, at \$250,000. The revenues of the Bishop of Erlan are estimated at \$30,000; and those of the Bishop of Agram at about \$100,000 per annum. The collected incomes of the whole Roman Catholic clergy are valued at \$1,620,000. That of the Greek Church is only about \$300,000. The Jews have about 200 synagogues.

It is important to correct, in this connection, an opinion that has prevailed in America, that the Roman Catholics of Hungary favored the Austrian cause in the late revolutionary struggle. This is a great mistake. The Catholics of Hungary were among the truest Hungarian patriots, and fought side by side with the Protestants, and all for the independence of the country. Thousands of them perished, with all they had, for Hungary. Speaking of the city of Gros Wardein, Mr. Brace says:

"Just within the town my companions pointed out to me a fine large park and handsome house, belonging to a Roman Catholic bishop, much beloved by the people, and now in an Austrian prison, in Arad, sentenced to imprisonment for 20 years. He was one of the truest Hungarian patriots, they said; and they were zealous Protestants themselves. It perhaps is not known, in America, how nobly many of the Catholic clergy sacrificed all for Hungary.

"The celebrated Catholic priest, Wimmer, who had won the confidence of the whole people by his self-denying efforts among the poor, in establishing schools and improving agriculture, organized, and commanded personally, a division of the National Guards. Many others proved their devotion to Hungary, by dying on the scaffolds or the gallows for their cause."\*

Mr. Brace, who was seized as an American, while traveling in Hungary, in 1861, on mere suspicion, and cast into an Austrian dungeon, where he was confined 30 days, found there, among some 100 companions confined for political offences, many Catholic priests, besides Protestant clergymen and Jewish rabbis.† "The clergy in Hungary," says Mr. Brace, "have fared very badly at the hands of the Austrian government since the revolution. \* \* \*

Numbers of them have been hanged or shot, and these not of any one sect, but Catholic priests and bishops, as well as Protestant clergymen, deacons, and superintendents." Mr. Brace's authority, regarding the Catholics of Hungary, can hardly be doubted, as he is a warm Protestant.

The Protestant church in Hungary suffered violent persecutions until the close of the 18th century, when they acquired toleration; and what is most remarkable, through the efforts of the Catholics of

\* Brace's Hungary, p. 371.

† Justice and truth require us to state, that in the late Hungarian revolution the w took an active part with the Hungarian patriots, and fought bravely for the cau liberty. Many of them are now dragging out their lives in Austrian dungeons.



Hungary themselves. Indeed, says Mr. Brace, "it should be remembered, that the attacks on the Protestants have scarcely ever come from their fellow-countrymen in Hungary. The two churches in Hungary have generally lived very amicably. The hostility is from Vienna."

Since the revolution the Protestants of Hungary have been deprived of their church government, it being deemed too republican in its character; but otherwise it remains the same. Its preachers are watched, as are all priests in Hungary, and they are not allowed to make the pulpit the medium of declamation against the Austrian government. The persecution comes entirely from Vienna, where the Austrian government has no religion. Austria cares nothing for any of the churches in Hungary, only so far as its despotic political views are concerned. It will tolerate anything that tolerates despotism.

*Trade.*—We have nothing later on this subject than 1847. The exports of that year to Austria amounted to \$26,735,400; the imports from Austria, to \$28,735,400. The exports to other countries, during the same year, amounted to \$4,833,978; the imports from them, to \$8,385,975. The exports from Hungary to Austria, in 1847, were the following articles:

Wool.....	\$3,376,890	Oxen.....	\$1,995,560
Hides.....	721,460	Hogs.....	1,969,430
Hemp.....	209,980	Sheep.....	336,163
Rags.....	160,107	Horses.....	254,125
Feathers.....	160,075	Useful Metals.....	1,601,074
Wheat.....	2,801,934	Tobacco.....	1,337,760
Oats.....	580,943		

The imports from Austria were—

Cotton goods.....	\$9,723,000
Woolen ".....	3,684,695
Linen and hempen manufactures.....	2,004,253
Iron and steel wares.....	1,906,476
Yarn.....	1,707,333
Silk goods.....	1,422,300
Leather.....	511,207

The agricultural products of Hungary are the same as those of our northern states.

*Railroads.*—There are several lines, all in the possession of the government. That extending along the Danube, from Marchegg to Pesth and Szolnok, is 215 miles long, and cost about \$10,506,106. Austria has made no improvements in Hungary since the revolution, except in the way of fortifications, the better to enslave the Hungarians. Some old prisons have been fitted up, and they are now filled with hundreds of poor Hungarian patriots, guilty of nothing but a love of liberty. May the day speedily come, when they may see their Austrian jailors and Austrian tyrants biting the dust!

Hungary is very deficient in roads. With an area of about 100,000 square miles, there are only about 2,000 miles of road in the whole country, and not more than three or four regular lines of

stage-coaches. The country being level mostly, in wet weather the roads are nearly impassable. The country is admirably fitted for rail-roads, and under a good government it would have them, connecting its fertile plains with Turkey, the Adriatic, and with Germany. A good government would make Hungary one of the richest countries on the globe.

*Mineral Products.*—Hungary yields annually gold and silver to the amount of \$1,037,173; of copper, \$689,040; and of iron, \$1,250,000. It also yields lead, cobalt, antimony, rock salt, alum, and coal, in large quantities; also potter's clay, porcelain, limestone, marble, chalk, gypsum, alabaster, asbestos, fuller's earth, and sulphur.

Of the precious stones, it affords the opal, ruby, topaz, amethyst, jasper, agate, etc.

*Manufactures.*—Of these, Hungary has those of pottery, earthenware, porcelain, iron-ware, paper, colors, cloth, refined sugar, and of beet-root sugar, champagne, candles, soap, soda, potash, saltpetre, machinery, &c., &c.; in all, about 500 manufacturing establishments.

*Education.*—Institutions for education are numerous in Hungary. The University at Pesth is one of the most richly endowed institutions in Europe. It is under the care of the government. Its utility, however, is by no means in proportion to its large revenues. There are three royal academies, at Presburg, Gros Wardein, and Kaschan; the Royal Mountain Academy, at Schemnitz; the Economical Institute, at Altenburg; the Industrial School, united with a Geometrical Institute, at Pesth. There are several Lyceums, and 68 Gymnasias, entirely new formed. The Greek Catholics have a Gymnasium at Belényes. The Roman Catholics have five Normal Schools for teachers, at Pesth, Raab, Gros Wardein, and in two other towns. The United Greeks have one at Arad. There are also three Lutheran Protestant Colleges, and 15 Gymnasias, large and small; also four Reformed Protestant Colleges, and 11 Gymnasias.

The other institutions of education in Hungary are: 72 Seminaries for Greek and Roman Catholic Priests; 14 Educational Houses for the same; 10 Nunneries; two Seminaries for girls; 18 Music Schools; 20 Drawing Schools; two Deaf and Dumb Institutions; and two Institutions for the Blind. Ten Gymnasias have been closed.

So many institutions of learning, in a country like Hungary, with an area not greater than that of Wisconsin, or 100,000 square miles, speak well for the general intelligence of the people. Indeed, under so free and democratic a form of government as Hungary has had since the great reforms in 1835, the people of Hungary must necessarily be generally intelligent, and more or less educated, far beyond anything found either in France or England. The language of the schools is German, except in those parts where the majority of the scholars are Hungarian; but of their present actual condition Mr. Brace, the latest writer, gives us no information.

## ART. II.—EMIGRATION:

## ITS RESULTS, AND FUTURE POLICY.

THE advancement of population in the United States during the last decennial term, resulting in a great measure from increased immigration, is a theme for profitable reflection. The tide of emigration that has set so strongly to our shores continues to flow, and its waters grow more turbid and swollen each year. No legislative prohibition impedes its course, and it rushes fearfully onward, penetrating every bay and inlet of our coast, and rolling its heavy surges up to our wharves, it there discharges its ponderous burthen, in haste for the next succession.

Hitherto we have required the assistance of all who have visited our shores. The vast accessions of uninhabited regions that have been rapidly gained, would long have been unprofitable without those living supplies which have freighted so heavily the emigrant vessels. Without these, our western wilds would still have remained savage, and the limits of our extension been greatly circumscribed. Without these, the broad belt of civilization that now links together two sister oceans would have proved abortive to this end. With them, our infant country, in the development of her resources, has grown powerful, and a diadem of stars has crowned her years.

To indicate the full measure of aid afforded by emigration, we must have recourse to figures, and for this purpose shall rely mainly on the returns of the different censuses. Commencing as far back as 1810, we find the number of foreigners arrived from that period to 1820, amounted to 114,000; from 1820 to 1830, there were 204,000; from 1830 to 1840, 778,500; from 1840 to 1850, 1,500,000, exhibiting a large ratio of increase during each decade. Comparing our population in 1840 (17,000,000) with the last enumeration in 1850, (23,000,000,) we discover an advance of 6,000,000, and the emigration for the intervening period being 1,500,000, it has furnished *one-fourth* of our increase in ten years.

To show the *distribution* of this foreign population, we shall note the ratio of increase; first, in some of the divisions of states; next, in a few of the states individually, and then in some of the cities. Assuming the density of population for our measure, we annex the following:

	Inhab. sq. m., 1840.	Inhab. sq. m., 1850.
New-England States .....	35.63	43.23
Middle States .....	43.32	57.10
Southern and Southwestern (Slave) States..	11.50	14.00
Northwestern States.....	5.70	11.20

From which it will be seen that the middle and northwestern states exhibit the largest proportion of increase, the latter having nearly doubled, and these are precisely the divisions most visited by emigrants. Confining ourselves to these two divisions, then, we will examine some of the states individually.

	Inhab. sq. m., 1840.	Inhab. sq. m., 1850.
New-York .....	52.08	67.66
Pennsylvania .....	37.45	50.25
Maryland .....	50.23	62.31
Ohio .....	38.09	49.55
Iowa .....	0.84	3.77
Wisconsin .....	0.57	5.45

A relative advance, to be accounted for mainly by the immense number of foreigners that are there daily seeking settlements. We have seen it stated that, for the past year alone, *sixty thousand* emigrants have located in Iowa. But to magnify these results still more, we will observe now the increase of cities.

	Pop. in 1840.	Pop. in 1850.	Ratio of Increase.
Buffalo .....	18,212	42,261	132.03
Oswego .....	4,668	12,205	161.62
Pittsburgh .....	21,115	46,601	120.70
Alleghany .....	10,089	21,261	110.73
Cincinnati .....	46,338	125,000	169.80
Cleveland .....	6,071	17,034	180.57
St. Louis .....	16,469	80,000	385.70
Chicago, Illinois .....	4,470	29,963	570.31
Milwaukee, Wis. ....	1,712	20,061	1071.78

Here is exhibited a growth unequaled in the history of the world : cities springing into existence, Minerva-like, without any process of maturation. Were the cause of their sudden being unknown, the effect would seem magical ; but there is exerted a power visible and more potent than the stroke of Vulcan.

Thus far we have shown the results of emigration by the increase of our population, the settlement of new regions, and the creation of large and populous cities. We will now examine it in a new aspect—*its moral influence on our institutions*. It is well known that a sudden transition from positive restriction to unbridled license is injurious to our constitution, moral and physical. Yet such is nearly the position of the newly-arrived emigrant. A short, a trifling interval elapses after his advent, and he becomes invested with all the rights of *our inheritance—our co-equal*. He undergoes a metamorphosis miraculous to himself. But how is he fitted for the change, for the discharge of his new duties, the exercise of his unwonted privileges ? Has previous training prepared him for discretionary judgment ? Will prudence characterize his acts ? Will America's destiny be more secure, her dignity undiminished, her institutions unimpaired, by *his agency* ? Before answering these, let us ascertain whence the emigrants come, their national characteristics, and the circumstances under which they have been reared.

During the year 1851, there arrived at New-York, from foreign ports, 289,601 emigrants. Of these 163,256, or nearly two-thirds, were Irish ; 68,883, or one-fourth, Germans ; 28,553 English, 7,302 French, and 6,064 Scotch. The proportion arriving at other ports remaining nearly the same, varying perhaps in favor of the Germans, evinces that the largest numbers are Irish and Germans.

In view of these facts, what should be our future policy in relation



to this subject? Before making a reply, we will consider our present position. We are now possessed of an area of 3,000,000 square miles, with a population of 23,000,000 inhabitants, giving an average density of 7.22 inhabitants to the square mile; or, excluding the territories, 15.48. Compared with the population of other countries, the sparseness of our own seems very great, and would appear to indicate the need of every encouragement for settlement.

But, to recur to our query—how shall we regulate the admission of foreigners in future? Shall we place an interdict on those who are yet surcharging our ports, and say to them—"stay; we have no further relief for you?" Shall we close the portals of this happy "home of the brave and the free," and allow the oppressed and outcast of our race to linger in dungeons of despotic rule, or die amid fields of desolation and starvation? Shall we arrest the progress of our western states and diminish their speedy growth? No; we would do neither of these. But we would not *undo* what we have already nobly done. We would prize too highly our privileges, to be indifferent to anything that could endanger their perpetuity. Jealous affection for these should awaken our apprehension, lest we peril them by our *careless generosity*. We would still admit the stranger who knocks at our door, but we would so receive him and regulate his conduct, that he would be most benefited by his new position, and occasion no harm to others. We would have our naturalization laws modified, so that a subject of monarchy shall be only a *minor* of our republic, required to await maturity, before he can become one of the sovereigns of our land. Let the short term of apprenticeship now required for one of the noblest callings of life—the exercise of free privileges—be extended. Let us impose every safeguard around the ballot-box—"the palladium of our freedom," that it may be preserved untarnished, the sacred heritage of future generations. Let these or wiser provisions be enacted, and then may we *welcome* all who wish to come, and promise to them that stability they elsewhere crave. Then shall we have accelerated our country to that pinnacle of distinction and supremacy to which she is surely and rapidly attaining.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

### ART. III.—THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC: THE HAWAIIAN CLUSTER.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS—INHABITANTS, CHARACTER AND NUMBER—THE SANDWICH ISLANDS—NATURAL RESOURCES AND PRODUCTIONS—TABLES OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—CUSTOM-HOUSE RETURNS—EDUCATION, GOVERNMENT, ETC.

"Trade is the golden girdle of the globe."

The United States, the last great power to appear upon the theatre of action, has become an arbiter in the affairs of the PACIFIC, and is preparing to enter the lists where Britain and Spain and France have for ages enjoyed the supremacy. It is but a natural sequence of the

annexation of California and Oregon, and of that Mexican war, which, however brilliant in its results, caused Mr. Calhoun to declare in the Senate that the first act of the drama of American history was ended, the curtain had fallen, and everything beyond was uncertain and confused.

We are at last upon the Pacific. There are our ports and harbors—our ships, our people, and our merchandise; our civilization, our laws, our constitutions: with Russia, almost for a neighbor: with Chinamen, protesting against the acts of our governors; with Sandwich Islanders, claiming our protection! Surely Mr. Calhoun was right—old Rome is revived; but old Rome, thank God! without its paganism; we hope without its Cæsars (to come). Though uncertain, confused, why not glorious the future? Glorious in Christian power, in arts, in commerce, in liberty and in laws? We invoke this with true patriotic heart for our country.

It becomes us then to be informed about the Pacific—its isles and its continents, and we are determined that these subjects shall be presented fairly and liberally in our pages. The country has hardly yet recovered from the surprise of learning that the government of the Sandwich Islands, disgusted by the excesses of the French under Dillon, and their claims through Perrin, have proposed to our own government the establishment of a protectorate over them, or an unconditional annexation of their domain. Of these points there can be no doubt—but of the event who can speak? If Cuba be necessary as a key to the gulf and western valleys, why not these islands, with their admirable harbors, as half-way houses or houses of refuge for our whalemén—points of security in the voyages of our Californian and Oregonian marine? Who will answer?

The Pacific Ocean, including its various archipelagoes, reaches in a direct line, on the equator, from the Island of Sumatra or the southern extremity of Malacca to the coast of South America near Quito—a distance of 175 degrees of longitude; or, at about the eighth parallel

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\* The Polynesian thus strongly presses the advantages possessed in this respect by these islands:

"In view of these facts, and with the knowledge that goods can be entered here for re-shipment, subject only to a transit duty of one per cent, the advantages of this port, as a depot for goods awaiting a market, must appear quite apparent. If the late decision of the Collector of San Francisco is carried into execution, we submit to consignees there, having cargoes upon their hands, whether it would not be a material saving of expense to send their ships here to discharge and store their goods, until a favorable moment arrives for effecting sales.

"We shall, without doubt, have a line of steamers running between the islands and the coast within a few months. By this expeditious mode of intercourse goods could be thrown into that market within a month or six weeks, and merchants there would always know the state of the demand, and the proper time to have them forwarded.

"In addition to the above facilities, vessels can get stone ballast, wood, and water, of the very best description, in any quantity, and so convenient, that casks can be filled in a lighter or ship's boat from the hose, as it comes from the iron pipes. This water is perfectly soft, being brought from a spring some hundreds of feet above the sea, without coming in contact with the ground.

"We are confident in the belief that Honolulu possesses all the advantages for a large commercial depot for the North Pacific, especially for California and Oregon, which will, ere long, be appreciated and employed, in preference to Valparaiso or any other port in this ocean; and where assorted cargoes for those points, and for the more northern possessions of the Russians, can be made up at the very shortest notice."

of north latitude, from the Gulf of Siam to the Bay of Panama, fully 180 degrees; or one-half the circumference of the earth. In breadth it extends from about 60° north to 50° south—a distance of 110 degrees, or near 8,000 miles. Its length in the latitude of Oregon is about 4,500 miles, and its southern length from Australia to Chili is about 6,000 miles—135 degrees of longitude. The water-surface of this vast basin is rather greater than the entire land-surface of the globe. But it is not one entire and unrelieved expanse of water. Scattered over the greater part of its extent,—principally the portion lying between the parallels of latitude 30° north and south, and west of the meridian 60° west from Washington,—are innumerable islands, solitary, or in clusters, rejoicing in all the luxuriance afforded by a rich soil and a delightful tropical climate.

Omitting the large island of Australia or New-Holland, which may itself be reckoned a continent, these islands may be thus generally classified: 1. *Malasia*, or the Indian Archipelago, comprising Sumatra, Java, Borneo, the Philippine Islands, and the Moluccas, or Spice Islands. 2. *The Isles of Japan*. 3. The *Aleutian* chain, or the Fox Islands, extending across the North Pacific from Alaska to Kamschatka. 4. And the remainder, comprised under the appellation of *Polynesia*. This latter division consists of the following principal groups: the Ladrone, or Marianne Isles; the Caroline Isles; the Central Archipelago, and the Sandwich Islands, north of the equator, and the Papuan Islands—embracing New Guinea, New Britain, Solomon's Archipelago, New Hebrides, and other adjacent islands, the Friendly Islands—including the Fidji and Navigators', the Washington and Marquesas, the Society Islands, and New Zealand, south of the equator. It embraces a vast area, extending over about one hundred degrees of longitude and sixty to eighty degrees of latitude. Except New Zealand and a few isolated rocks, these islands all lie within the tropics, yet they enjoy a most mild and equable temperature, being constantly fanned by the breezes and moistened by the pluvial distillations of the Pacific.

The Indian Archipelago embraces about 800,000 square miles; the Isles of Japan about 80,000 square miles, and Polynesia upwards of 200,000—New Zealand occupying of this amount 62,000, the Papuan Isles 125,000, and the Sandwich Islands 7,000. The other groups consist for the most part of small islands, Tacanova, the largest of the Fidji, containing about 1,500 square miles, and Tahiti, the first of the Society Islands, only about 600.

The maritime enterprise of the age which first made America known to the civilized world also brought to light some of these gems of the ocean. Magellan, in 1513, having passed through the strait to which his name has been given, traversed the South Pacific to the west and north, touching at the Ladrone and the Philippines. Mendana, towards the close of the 16th century, discovered the Solomon Islands and the Marquesas. Various other navigators of all maritime nations, during 200 years subsequent, sailed through these seas in their route to and from the Indies, and made casual discoveries; but it is to the English explorers of the latter part of the last century that we are

principally indebted for information concerning this interesting region. Wallis discovered the beautiful and lovely Otaheite; and Cook, having between the years 1767-'79 thrice circumnavigated the globe and pretty fully explored the waters of the Pacific, adding greatly to our stores of knowledge concerning the natives of the islands, fell a victim, in the last-mentioned year, to his zeal in the cause of Polynesian discovery;—having been killed the 14th of February, on the Island of Hawaii (Owhyhee)—one of the groups entirely discovered by himself, and by him called the Sandwich Islands. During the past half century American shipping has been gradually taking the commercial rule in the Pacific, and our sails there, whalers and merchantmen, now far outnumber those of any other nation; while valuable geographical, ethnographical, and scientific additions have been made to Polynesian literature by the National Exploring Expedition under Lieut. Wilkes.

This entire region of the earth appears to be the result of igneous agency. Plutonic power might here have been displayed, disputing Neptune's sway, and giving birth to many a fair isle, many a bright spot of earth, fit abode for nymph or goddess. The Island of Tahiti is one lofty basaltic mountain, rising near 10,000 feet above the sea. The other Society Islands, with the Marquesas, are of the same general nature. Tofua, on one of the Friendly Islands, 3,000 feet in height, is probably an incessant volcano,—having been in activity whenever it was visited. An active volcano exists on the island Ahrym, one of the New Hebrides. The largest of the Gambier group is elevated upwards of 1,200 feet above the sea, and is evidently an extinct volcano. In the Sandwich Islands are several volcanoes, both active and extinct. Hawaii, the largest, has two peaks, Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea, which rise each about 14,000 feet in height. In the flank of Mauna Loa occurs the volcanic crater Kilauea, three thousand feet above the level of the sea, and the largest in the world. The circumference of the crater at the top is 24 miles, with a depth of 1,200 feet to the surface of the burning lake within, which, two miles in length by one in breadth, is in a constant state of ebullition. An eruption took place last spring, when a large stream of lava flowed down the mountain, reaching to within seven miles of Hilo, on Byron's Bay, which is about forty miles distant from the crater.

A remarkable feature in the geology of this region of the earth, peculiar thereto, exists in its numerous islands and reefs of the coral formation. Many of the low islands present this formation in their entire surface, and to a considerable depth below the water level; whilst a number of the most elevated mountainous islands are partially encircled by coral reefs. It was long supposed that this production of the enterprising and indefatigable coral insect had its foundation in the unknown and unfathomable depths of the ocean; and surmises have even been made that this industrious race are widely engaged throughout the whole of Polynesia in their silent labors, and they were some day to startle the old world by the sudden completion of a new, vast continent. Without any disparagement whatever of the industry of the insect builder, it may well be



doubted whether their labors begin at any very great depth below the water surface—whether they be not, indeed, quite superficial. Capt. King, a navigator of the same era with Capt. Cook, thus speaks of Elizabeth's Island, under the Tropic of Capricorn, near to Pitcairn's:

"We found that this island differed essentially from all others in its vicinity, and belonged to a peculiar formation. . . . The island is five miles in length, and one in breadth, and has a flat surface nearly eighty feet above the sea. On all sides except the north, it is bounded by perpendicular cliffs, about fifty feet high, composed entirely of dead coral, more or less porous, honey-combed at the surface, and hardening into a compact calcareous substance within, possessing the fracture of secondary limestone, and with a species of millepore interspersed through it. The dead coral, of which the higher part of the island is composed, is nearly circumscribed by ledges of living coral, which project beyond each other at different depths; on the northern side of the island the first of these had an easy slope from the beach to a distance of about fifty yards, when it terminated abruptly about three fathoms under water. The next ledge had a greater descent, and extended to two hundred yards from the beach, with twenty-five fathoms over it, and there ended as abruptly as the former, a short distance beyond which no bottom could be gained with two hundred fathoms of line."

Judging from the known volcanic form and nature of many of the elevated islands, from the above description of Henderson Island, and from the general oval or circular shape of the low coral islands and reefs, which most frequently have in their centres lagoons or depressions corresponding with the craters of volcanic peaks, it may easily be conceived that this whole region of archipelagoes has been the theatre of grand sub-aquatic volcanic action, which resulted in the raising up of cones to various degrees of elevation—some above, others below, the level of the sea. Those submerged cones which approached nearest to the surface were pitched upon by the insect workers as the bases of their coralline structure, which being reared comparatively a short distance to the surface, the islands thus formed appeared in the same circular or oval shape as the peaks upon which they were founded. The insects, having from their calcareous secretions built up their cellular abode beyond the reach of the highest tides, have died out and left a desert rock; which, however, by the secretion of vegetable matter from the waves, has soon become possessed of a soil capable of affording germination and sustenance to the cocon palm (Haari) and other hardy plants, and, in a short time, to a luxuriant growth of all the most delicious tropical productions. On the more elevated islands the decomposition of the volcanic stones has produced an exceedingly fertile soil.

These islands are all singularly destitute of the useful and valuable metals, neither gold, silver, iron, nor copper being found; but their mineral resources are as yet unexplored, and comparatively unknown.

*Natural Productions.*—The flora of Polynesia embraces a very great number and variety of fruit trees and plants of esculent nature,

which grow in tropical luxuriance, supplying all the wants of the natives, and rendering agriculture almost needless. The Paœ or Bread-fruit, (*Artocarpus incisa*,) the Haari, or Cocoa-nut, the Taro, (*Arum esculentum*,) the Pia, (*Tacca pinnatifida*,) similar to the arrow-root, the Plantain and Banana, (*Musa sapientum* and *Musa paradisiaca*,) the yam, (*Dioscorea alata*,) the Chinese Paper Mulberry, (*Morus papyrifera*,) the Hala, (*Pandanus odorat.*,) the Rata, (*Inocarpus edulis*,) a native chestnut, the Vi, a species of plum, the Ahio, resembling the apple, the Sandal-wood, (*Santalum Freyeinetianum*,) the Kukui, (*Aleurites triloba*,) and the To, or sugar-cane, are the principal indigenous productions. Oranges, limes, shaddocks, citrons, tamarinds, pine-apples, guavas, figs, the coffee plant, and other exotics have been introduced into various of the islands, and thrive well. The vine was cultivated by the missionaries, but has been destroyed in the wars. Many of our domestic vegetables—as beans, cabbages, cucumbers, melons, pumpkins, &c., are also raised to some extent.

The bread-fruit is entitled to a place in the first rank, being the principal article of food of the natives. It is cooked in various ways, generally roasted or baked. The tree produces three or four crops in a year. There are fifty varieties of this tree. The cocoa-palm flourishes alike in the most fertile valleys and on the wildest rocky beach and mountain sides. The yam, which affords an excellent article of food, is not very extensively cultivated, though in some islands it is raised in the rich valleys, or on prepared terraces. The taro, which has a broad and beautiful silvery green leaf, grows in soil covered with water. The root may be eaten at the age of one year or less, but it attains its excellence in two or three years. Both the leaf and the root have an exceedingly pungent flavor when in the undressed state—a fact which the tongue of the writer can bear sad testimony to; but in cooking this is completely dissipated, and the root forms a wholesome, palatable food. It is baked like the bread-fruit, and afterwards beaten into paste, called poœ. The root of the pia, beaten to pulp and washed repeatedly, and dried in the sun, forms a very nutritive substance, similar to arrow-root, and may in time become an imported article of commerce. The to, or sugar-cane, grows spontaneously in the Hawaiian Islands, and considerable attention is latterly paid to its cultivation, so that it has come to be quite an article of commerce, as will appear when we come to treat particularly of those islands. From the ti root (*dracona terminalis*) an inebriating spirit called ava is distilled by means of a very rude and primitive apparatus, consisting of a hollow log to receive the macerated root, a bamboo reed passing thence through a trough of water, and a calabash to receive the condensed vapor. The most shameful, demoralizing, and even murderous effects of drunkenness usually followed the indulgence in this liquor by the natives, on festive occasions. The introduction, however, of foreign distilled liquors among some of the islanders, has, as a less evil, displaced in a great measure this horrid stimulus. It is thought this root possesses valuable medicinal qualities, which may be de-

veloped in time. Sandal-wood was formerly cut to a great extent and exported to China, where it is used in the preparation of incense for burning in the temples. Latterly the wood has been becoming scarce, and a great falling off has taken place in the quantity exported. It is, too, inferior to the sandal-wood of the East Indies. From the inner bark of the paper mulberry, a kind of cloth or matting is made, which is used by the natives for various purposes of clothing, bedding, &c. The kukui tree yields a nut rich in oil, which is, to some extent, being brought into the market. The natives used the nuts for candle purposes, stringing a number of them upon a rush, and enveloping the whole in leaves of the pandanus.

The fauna of Polynesia is not distinctive, except in the absence of the larger and nobler animals. Of the vertebrata there are dogs, hogs, and rats; the albatros, tropic-bird, petrels, herons, and wild ducks, wood-peckers, turtle-doves, and pigeons, the parroquet, (*trichoclossus*), with various other genera of fowl; besides an abundance of fishes. Horses, asses, cows, oxen, sheep, goats, cats, and other foreign domestic animals have been introduced, and thrive well. The native hog has almost disappeared, being supplanted by the European, which is reared to a very great extent. Pork is now the favorite animal food of the islanders, although the flesh of the dog is highly prized. The method of preparing the meat of either of these animals, in the Sandwich Islands, is to surround it with potatoes and the taro root, and envelop the whole in taro leaves, and place the mass in an oven of hot stones to bake. The dish is called by the natives *lu-an*. American gentlemen who have feasted on *lu-aned* pig and dog, say they cannot readily distinguish between the two—they are equally good. The delicate canine animal is small, and destitute of hair; he subsists upon a vegetable diet, being fattened upon poi and potatoes. The Friendly Islanders ate rats formerly. These are of the family of marsupia, akin to the kangaroo.

The coasts and lagoons of the islands abound in fish—sharks, the bonito, ray, albacore, rock-fish; in the fresh water streams, salmon, eels, &c.; and crabs, turtles, &c. are caught. The *cachelot*, or sperm whale, the cape whale, humpback, black-fish, porpoises, and others of the cetacea order are abundant in these seas. A single male *cachelot* often yields 70 to 90 barrels of oil, and 15 barrels of spermaceti.

*Inhabitants—character and number.*—The native population of Polynesia consists of two distinct races of the human family, more or less intermixed, however, in most of the islands: the one, Papuan, or oriental negro of New Holland, and the other, called generally the Polynesian race, approaching nearly to the Malay race of Asia. In some of the islands traces of both races may be found in equal extent, while, generally, the features of one or the other are predominant. An arbitrary line projected from Mt. St. Elias, on the coast of Russian America, about S. S. W., leaving the Hawaiian Islands and New-Zealand on the east, will be found a convenient division. West of this line the negro type greatly prevails, being most marked in New-Guinea, New-Britain, New-Caledonia, and the Solomon

Islands. The natives of Tahiti, (Society group,) the Sandwich, the Friendly Islands, and New-Zealand, present the finest specimens of the Polynesian race, being tall, well formed, of intelligent expression, and of pleasing, graceful manners. The New-Zealand branch of this family is called by themselves "Maori," or pure, in distinction from the mixed races of the Fidji and other adjoining islands, though even here the flat nose and curly hair occur to considerable extent.

The language is essentially the same over this whole extent from New-Zealand to Hawaii on the north, and to Vaihoo or Easter Island on the east—a distance of 70 degrees of latitude, and 60 or 80 of longitude. When first discovered, the natives of these islands, although possessing many interesting features of character, were found to be sunken in sensualism, barbarism, and idolatry. Destructive wars, with attendant cannibalism, were of incessant occurrence; chastity was entirely unknown; polygamy was generally prevalent, notwithstanding a kind of civil marriage was recognized; and their only religious notions seemed to consist in the worship of demons and certain of the meanest animals. The society of Areei, of Tahiti and other islands, was a mixed community, having wives in common, and they destroyed all their offspring. Infanticide is still sadly prevalent in many islands.

Since our first knowledge of these people, their numbers have been constantly, and even rapidly diminishing, and it has seemed as if the work of depopulation would, at no distant day, be complete. Since the partial introduction of Christianity and civilization by the missionaries and merchantmen, the progress of decay has, however, been in some measure arrested, by the removal of the causes. But, although for a half century the diminution has been less rapid, it has up to the present time continued steadily.

The following table, from Jarvis's Hawaiian History, (Boston, 1843,) "will illustrate, in some degree, the decrease of population since the time of Cook." The census, as collected by the natives, is not much to be relied on, especially those of a few years back. In taking them it was, I suppose, only to get at the taxable polls, and great reluctance and deceit prevailed among the people, which prevented any positive accuracy; still, sufficient facts are established to show the general rate of decrease. Cook's vague estimate in 1779 made the population 400,000; but 300,000 would have been nearer the truth.

A loose estimate for 1823.....	142,050
A census in 1832.....	130,313
A census in 1836.....	108,570

"The census for this year (1840) is not accurately known; but the population of the group is estimated at upwards of 100,000, of whom one thousand are foreigners, and an equal number of half-breeds."—*Haw. Hist.*

Capt. Cook estimated the population of Tahiti at 120,000. Capt. Wilson, in 1797, about 20 years later, after a careful enumeration,



found it to be a little more than 16,000. At present the number does not exceed 7 or 8,000. From the estimates of Cook, Forster, and others, the whole of Polynesia was thought to contain, 70 years ago, a population of about two millions. This number was doubtless then exaggerated, and 800,000 may be considered a high estimate of the entire present population, including New Zealand and the Papuan Islands.

Some of these islands have favorably received the missionaries of the Christian religion, and have felt its beneficial influences, principally in its civilizing tendencies. Tahiti was one of the earliest recipients of these blessings. On the 6th of March, 1797, a party of missionaries from London were landed on the island by Capt. Wilson, from the ship *Duff*. They were well treated by the natives, but after eleven years, during which time they had made no converts, they abandoned the island, leaving a few of their number on the neighboring island, Eimeo. But about this time Pomare, the king or principal chief of Tahiti, being driven out by a body of insurgents, took refuge in Eimeo, where, in his distresses, he was induced to listen to the teachings of the missionaries, and became a convert to Christianity. To give publicity to his change of faith, a turtle—a sacred animal—one *taped*,—was served up and eaten. Other chiefs followed his example, and their influence was felt upon their subjects. Pomare was subsequently invited back to Tahiti by a number of partisans, and finally, in 1815, he succeeded in subduing the insurgent party and established the new religion, overthrowing the old *morais*, or temples and altars. His sister, Aimata, who succeeded as queen in 1827, also supported the Christian religion.

An entire revolution has occurred in the Sandwich Islands, which, having become civilized and Christianized, have taken their place among the nations of the earth as an independent kingdom, acknowledged and welcomed as such by some of the most powerful governments of the globe. A most marked change has also taken place in the character of the New Zealanders within fifty years, owing to the efforts of the missionaries, and the intercourse with foreigners, merchants and others engaged in commerce. Natives of the islands, adopt the costumes, the habits, the employments of the whites who have come among them, and are gradually raising themselves up to their level. Some are employed by the settlers as servants, and as tillers of the soil; others are engaged as artisans, sailors, &c. Here, as well as in Tahiti, the Sabbath is observed, schools are well attended, and regular government and laws are established and respected. New Zealand is a British colony. The Society Islands are under French influence, who have also settlements on the Marquesas; but recent accounts from Tahiti and Raiatea inform us, that Queen Pomare has been dethroned, and that revolutionary movements are on foot. The commerce of these islands is considerable, being frequented by whalers, and by merchant ships on their way to Australia, from Europe or the American coast.

*The Sandwich Islands.*—The Hawaiian, or Sandwich group, consists of eleven islands: Hawaii, from which the cluster derives its more

modern name, the largest, and also the most southern and eastern, Maui, Kahoolawe, Lanai, Molokai, Oahu, Kauai, and Niihau, with three others, smaller and uninhabited. The chain extends, in the order enumerated, from southeast to northwest,—Kauai, the most northerly, being in latitude  $22^{\circ}$  north, and longitude  $83^{\circ}$  west from Washington. They occupy a most favorable position in the North Pacific, and form a convenient stopping-place—a kind of half-way-house between Western America and China and the Indies. They are distant about 5,500 miles east by south from China, 5,100 miles west by north from Panama, about 4,000 miles nearly west from Tehuantepec, and 2,400 miles west-south-west from San Francisco—about the point of their nearest approach to the American continent.

Hawaii contains about 4,300 square miles of surface; it is 88 miles in length from north to south, and 73 in breadth,—in shape approaching a scalene triangle. Maui, 48 miles long by 30 broad, contains 600 square miles. Oahu, 46 miles in length by 25 in width, has an area of 550 square miles. Kauai, nearly circular, has 500 square miles; Molokai, 190; Lanai, 125; Niihau about 100; and Kahoolawe about 75. Molokini, Kauai and Lehua are mere small rocky islands; the two latter being much frequented by wild fowl. *Kailua*, with a population of 2,000, is the principal town of Hawaii. *Hilo*, on the northeast side of the island, has a fine harbor. *Lahaina*, the capital of Maui, is also the capital of the kingdom,—the residence of the king and his court. The population is about 3,000. There is no harbor at this port, but an open roadstead, yet it is resorted to by numbers of American whalers. *Honolulu*, on the island of Oahu, is the commercial metropolis, with a population of about 10,000. It is on the south side of the island, with a secure harbor, capable of admitting sixty or eighty sail of vessels of 500 tons burthen.

The population of the islands, according to the enumeration of 1832, was 130,313; the census of 1836 gave 108,579; in 1846 the inhabitants numbered 95,400; and according to the returns of 1849—the latest we have—the total population amounted to but 80,641; of which number 1,787 were foreigners and 78,854 were natives. The inhabitants were distributed among the different islands as follows: Hawaii, 27,204; Oahu, 23,145; Maui, 18,671; Kauai, 6,941; Molokai, 3,429; Niihau, 723; Lanai, 523. There is also a small fishing population upon the rock Kahoolawe, which is probably included in the enumeration of the adjoining islands, Maui and Lanai.

From these figures it will be seen that a continued decrease is going on in the number of the population, at a startling ratio. Considering the census returns, especially of the earlier years, to be approximative to the truth, we have an annual rate of diminution for the four years, from 1832 to 1836, about four and one-half per cent. (.045;) for the ten years, from 1836 to 1846, the rate of one and one-third per cent. (.013;) and for the last three years, from 1846 to 1849, five and a half per centum per annum. The decrease for the entire 17 years was at the rate of 38 per cent. on the population of 1832, and the average annual rate of decrease for the same time was a little less than three per cent. Such, however, is the disproportion between these different annual rates, (.045, .013, and .055,) that, in the

absence of any sufficient reason therefor, it is presumable that the returns for 1836, and perhaps for 1849, were incorrect, and fell short of the true number of the inhabitants.

But while the aboriginal population is diminishing, the number of foreign residents increases, and the mixed races are also rapidly augmenting in numbers, while they are fast rising in respectability. Nine years ago the foreign population numbered one thousand, of whom about seven hundred were Americans; the remainder were Englishmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards, Portuguese, Chilians and Chinese. Sixty American families were domiciliated in the islands, and several of other nations; besides the families of Americans and others who have married native wives of intelligence, refinement, and a high order of respectability. In 1846 the foreign population of Honolulu alone was about one thousand, including thirty-eight American families and twelve of other nations. In all the islands there were seventy-four American families, including thirty-five families attached to the American Missions, numbering in the aggregate about 350 souls, and averaging four or five members to each family. A considerable number of these are born upon the islands; the number of white ladies *not* born there was 90 residents; besides some who are there only transiently, as the wives of captains and officers. Of the foreigners residing on the islands in 1846, 350 had taken the oath of allegiance to the king and government, and become naturalized. A law passed by the chiefs requires one to give two years' notice of his intention to take the oath, and also to produce certificates of good character. During the year ending March 31st, 1852, 130 foreigners took the oath of allegiance to his majesty; of these, 66, or one-half, were natives of the United States; 31 of Great Britain; 15 of China; 4 of Germany; 2 of British America; and 11 of other countries.

*Natural Resources and Productions.*—The soil of the Sandwich Islands is less fertile than that of any other islands of Polynesia, but much of the land is well adapted to grazing purposes. Excellent wheat grows wild on the highlands of Maui, and the Irish potato also grows finely here. Cotton and indigo also flourish extremely well, but are not yet raised to any great extent. The coffee plant thrives luxuriantly, and at Hilo yields from six to ten pounds per tree. From the kukui-nut an oil is expressed, capable of superseding linseed oil, for painting purposes. Several mills are in operation. The pia-root (arrow-root) is manufactured and exported to a small extent. It is worth in the islands about ten cents a pound. Tobacco grows well, and a small quantity has been raised. Wild cattle exist in herds on the mountains of Hawaii. The bullocks have been much hunted for their hides, from five to ten thousand having been killed per annum. In 1840 the king laid a *tapu* upon them for five years; that is, forbid their destruction during that time, in order that their numbers might increase. Wild goats have been numerous, whose hides, also, have been exported; large packs of wild dogs, which roam about the mountains, have latterly, however, destroyed many of their number. Among the natural productions is to be reckoned

salt, which is obtained from a natural salt lake in the crater of an extinct volcano, a few miles from Honolulu. The lake is a mile in circumference, and yields an abundant supply of salt. The forests yield some of the finest varieties of cabinet woods.

Most of the sandal-wood at present grown upon the islands is small, and no great quantity is exported. The first cargo was shipped from Kauai or Kauhai in 1792, by Capt. Kendrick, of Boston, but the trade was not extended in any considerable degree for ten years. During the reign of Kamehameha I., the export trade of this article was encouraged, and reached the amount of some hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth annually. In the short reign of Liholiho, from 1819 to 1824, his predecessor's careful policy was abandoned, and the sandal-wood was cut and exported to an immense extent, and, indeed, until the supply became nearly exhausted. Vessels were frequently bought and paid for in sandal-wood; a pit being dug equal to the size of the vessel, and filled with the fragrant wood. A pleasure barge from Salem, Mass., which cost not more than ten thousand dollars originally, was exchanged in this manner for a quantity of sandal-wood which yielded upwards of \$60,000. The growth of the sandal-tree is very slow. The pieces of timber at first exported were twelve to eighteen inches in diameter, and were cut six to ten feet in length. When the demand for it, however, became very great, it was brought to the coast by the natives in billets of all sizes, down to an inch in thickness and a foot or two in length, being sold by weight. At one time a tax was imposed upon the natives, requiring each one to bring in one pikul, or 133 pounds weight, or in default to pay the sum of \$4 each.

The silk culture was commenced in 1837 with every prospect of success. The mulberry tree was found to flourish well, several varieties of which, the *morua multicaulis*, the Canton, the white, and the black, have been introduced. A company was formed, who sent an agent to the United States to purchase machinery, procure plants and varieties of eggs, and also to obtain all needed information concerning the business. He succeeded in all these particulars, and the enterprise was begun; but unfortunately a bad location was chosen, the trees and worms did ill, and through mismanagement the capital was all sunk in three years, and the attempt was abandoned. An individual has, however, since prosecuted the experiment with his own resources, upon the island of Kauai, and has succeeded admirably. The worms used are a cross between the United States breed and a smaller species from China. The cocoons are large, of a pale straw color, or a bright orange. From four to six thousand make a pound of reeled silk. The native boys and women reel, each, from half a pound to one pound per day. Quite a number of the natives are employed upon this single plantation, in the various departments of the culture. A crop of 300,000 to 1,000,000 of worms has been raised monthly, during nine months of the year. In the year 1841 \$200 worth of raw silk was exported from Honolulu.

The sugar-cane is an indigenous production of these islands. It was formerly reared by the natives for the sake of the juice, which



they took in its natural state, by suction. In 1835 its cultivation for the purpose of manufacturing sugar was begun on Kauai, the most northwestern island. The first attempt was made by a mercantile house in Honolulu, and was soon followed up by the natives, who held and tilled many small plantations. Iron mills were imported in 1840. They are worked by water-power, which is abundant. The quantity of land planted in the cane ten years ago was about one thousand acres. The soil yields from ten to fifteen hundred pounds per acre: sometimes three or four thousand pounds are yielded. The best mills turn out one to four tons daily. The sugar which has been manufactured is brown, and the price at the mills gradually fell in a few years from eight cents per pound to two or four. A superior article, clear, light sugar, brought last year seven cents, while foreign sugars were held at five and six. Molasses, of a superior quality, and syrups, are made, which at first brought in market 37½ cents per gallon, but the price has fluctuated from 25 to 35 cents.

The coffee crop is getting to be one of great importance. A schooner arrived at Honolulu the 13th April, 1852, from Hanalei, Kauai, with 25,000 pounds, from the plantation of Mr. Titcomb. This gentleman's crop for the last year amounted to 80,000 pounds. The crop of Mr. G. Rhodes was 17,000 pounds. 200,000 pounds were estimated to be still on hand, of last year's crop, on all the islands, in the month of April last.

In 1836 the amount of American property of all kinds invested at the islands was estimated at \$400,000. In 1842 it was estimated at one million, including one hundred thousand, the value of property held by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The amount at present is greatly larger. These investments consisted in shipping, trading stock, houses, improvements, and the capital expended in agricultural pursuits, &c. The property held by the American Board consists of dwelling-houses, printing-offices and presses, a bindery, school-houses, libraries, and apparatus, with furniture, cattle, &c., for the personal use of the missionaries. The value of foreign property other than American was about \$200,000.

The imports from the United States consisted, in 1840-41, of cotton cloths, bleached and brown, blue prints, chintz, glass, Britannia-ware, hardware, iron, copper, canvas, cordage, paints, naval stores, bread, flour, provisions, wines, ardent spirits, soap, shoes, clothing, books, furniture, lumber, &c. &c. From California were imported sea otter skins, land furs, hides, horses, tallow, soap, lumber, beans, &c. From China, blue nankeens, blue cottons, silks, satins, teas, furniture, &c. From Mexico, specie and bullion. From England, long-cloths, broad-cloths, clothing, chintz, prints, hardware, spirits, malt liquors, &c. From Chili, the same as from England and the United States; also French goods. From Russian America, lumber, spars, salmon, &c. Society Islands, turtle-shells, cocoa-nut oil, pearls and pearl-shell, and sugar. Manilla, rice, cigars, rope, hats, and manufactures of china, England and United States.

A very large portion of the foreign imports into the Sandwich Islands is for the purpose of being re-shipped to other markets; but

we have no data at hand to show what quantity has been thus re-exported; it amounts to fully one-third.

CUSTOM-HOUSE RETURNS.—WHOLE VALUE OF GOODS IMPORTED AND EXPORTED.

Imports.		Exports.	Tariff Duties.	
1843.....	\$223,383 38.....	—	1843..Net amount received.....	\$8,121 64
1844.....	350,347 12.....	\$79,640 90	1844.....	13,380 85
1845.....	546,941 72.....	706,102 78	1845.....	29,220 30
1846.....	575,000 00.....	750,000 00	1846.....	38,000 00

The revenue is derived from the customs, poll-taxes, licenses, stamp duties, and a small land tax upon the farmers. Real and personal property are subject to taxation whenever a deficit arises from other sources.

The amount realized from the sale of licenses for the year ending March 31st, 1852, was \$25,042 25.

The government of the Hawaiian Islands is a constitutional monarchy. Kamehameha I., called the Great, united the islands under one government, in the latter part of the last century, and died in 1819. His eldest son, Liholiho, succeeded, and after a short and dissipated reign, died in 1824, in England, leaving his mother Kaahumanu, the queen dowager, regent during the minority of her younger son. She died, however, in 1832, and the youthful king took the reins of government, under the title of Kamehameha III.

In February, 1843, Lord George Paulet, of H. B. M.'s ship Carysfort, forcibly seized the islands, and nominated a provisional government, or commission, consisting of King Kamehameha, (or a deputy by him appointed,) the Rt. Hon. Lord G. Paulet, Duncan F. Mackay, Esq., and Lient. Frere, of the Royal Navy, to administer the government while awaiting her majesty's pleasure. Rear Admiral Thomas, however, by order of his government, on the 31st July, of the same year, surrendered the islands to their rightful king. Since then they have remained unmolested by foreign interference, except in the attempts of France, before referred to, to influence their legislation and policy, and their independence has been acknowledged by the United States, England and France.

The executive department, as organized by the law of 1846, consists of five bureaus: the "Interior," "Foreign Relations," "Finance," "Public Instruction," and "Law." The heads of these bureaus, who, together, constitute the cabinet council, are appointed and removable by the king. Their salaries are \$2,000 each. The governors of the several islands are all chiefs, and, with the cabinet, form the privy council. Their salaries vary from \$3,000 to \$5,000. The king receives annually \$6,000 from the treasury, and from other sources perhaps an equal amount. The queen's allowance is distinct. With the exception of the king and a few chiefs, all the important and onerous portions of the administration of government is carried on by foreigners naturalized.

The civil and moral revolution which has been effected within fifty years is truly wonderful. The language of the natives has been re-

duced to writing; the Bible has been translated into it, the printing-press has been introduced, schools established, &c., &c. In the city of Honolulu are two large houses of worship belonging to Protestant churches, a seamen's chapel, and a Roman Catholic cathedral. Some of the principal buildings are those used for educational purposes. About 20,000 pupils, of both sexes, annually attend the common schools, most of whom, however, learn simply to read and write. There are also schools of a higher grade. The knowledge of the English language is rapidly extending among all classes. \$20,000 are annually appropriated towards the maintenance of the public schools. The government has an official press, "The Polynesian," of which an edition of 600 copies is weekly printed; 400 are for subscribers, a portion of the remainder being distributed gratuitously, and a portion reserved for government use and for binding. The report of the Minister of the Interior, last April, shows that the press, besides printing a great deal of matter for the departments free, gave a net profit of \$184 99 to the treasury, for the year ending 31st March.

Dr. Wood, surgeon of the U. S. Navy, who visited these islands in 1844, thus speaks of one of the schools of Hawaii: "We visited the school of native children, superintended by Mr. Lyman, one of the missionaries. There were about fifty boys in the school, of various ages and sizes. Their books of instruction, printed in their own language, comprised works of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, history, geography, natural philosophy, and anatomy. They had also maps and engravings, creditably executed by the natives themselves.

"The pupils made some arithmetical calculations for us on the black-board, and it had a strange effect to see the familiar figures and results of arithmetic developing themselves upon the board, accompanied by a language so recently foreign to science as the Hawaiian. The pupils of this school are clothed by the Board of Foreign Missions, which, indeed, sustains the school, with the exception of a few, whose parents have sufficient means to support and clothe them. A fine farm is connected with the school, and is cultivated by the boys." Dr. W. also visited the chiefs' school, in charge of Mr. and Mrs. Cooke, of the United States, an institution for the purpose of instructing the children of the nobility in our language and literature. One of the young ladies he describes as extremely beautiful. They performed on the piano, and sang songs familiar in America. One of these young ladies has since been married to an American gentleman, the district attorney for the island of Oahu. There have been many such marriages.

The entire amount expended on the Sandwich Islands for educational purposes during the year 1850, may be estimated as follows:—

On the public schools.....	\$25,891 96
On select schools supported by government.....	1,929 52
On select schools supported by voluntary efforts.....	11,061 00
Ministers' salary, clerk hire, stationery, &c.....	4,264 11

\$43,146 59

Six years ago upwards of \$5,000 were annually expended by the government and merchants in forwarding letters through Mexico to the United States and Europe. The number of letters received from Dec., 1850, to March 31, 1852, was: from the United States, 6,088; and from all other foreign countries, 3,500; total received, 9,588. Letters forwarded during the same time to the United States, 9,199; and to all other foreign countries, 6,000; total sent, 15,199.

The postage of a single letter from the United States to the Sandwich Islands, by California, is 11 cents, six of which, or the postage to San Francisco, must be pre-paid in the United States.\*

*Imports for the year 1850, from the following countries:*

California.....	\$305,913 28	Vancouver's Island.....	\$15,942 59
United States.....	283,037 49	France.....	7,633 48
Great Britain.....	63,987 69	Columbia River, Sitka, Bremen, Kamtschatka, Callao,	
British Colonies.....	114,782 11	Bonin Isles.....	24,063 90
China.....	109,124 19		
Chili.....	58,097 84		
Manilla.....	33,187 84		
Tahiti.....	19,288 29		\$1,035,058 70

*Statement of Imports, Duties, and Exports claiming Drawback, at the Port of Honolulu, for the year 1850.*

	Gross Invoice value.	Gross Duties.	Value re-exported.	Return Duties.	Net Consumption.
Goods paying 5 per cent. duty.....	920,677 48..	46,035 58..	28,236 31..	1,129 82..	892,441 17
Spirits, wines, &c.....	24,451 94..	112,568 03..	14,593 41..	85,557 30..	9,858 53
By Consuls and Mis- sions, free.....	24,684 80..	— ..	— ..	— ..	24,684 80
Remitted.....	49,572 00..	— ..	— ..	— ..	49,572 00
By whale-ships under \$200 each.....	15,672 42..	— ..	— ..	— ..	15,672 48
	1,035,058 70..	158,603 61..	42,829 72..	86,687 12..	992,228 98
Add amount of spirits and wines in Bond, Dec. 31, 1849, esti- mated at.....	18,000 00..	44,000 00..	— ..	— ..	18,000 00
	1,053,058 70..	202,603 61..	42,829 72..	86,687 12..	1,010,228 98
Deduct, spirits & wines now in bond which will probably be ex- ported, estimated at.	— ..	— ..	3,700 00..	24,000 00..	3,700 00
	1,053,058 70..	202,603 61..	46,529 72..	110,687 12..	1,006,528 98

*Domestic Exports from Honolulu and Lahaina, for the year 1850.*

HONOLULU AND KAUAI.

Sugar.....lbs.....	597,731	Lime.....bbls....	100
Molasses.....galls....	34,900	Beef.....".....	10
Syrup.....".....	9,000	Hides.....lbs....	20,241
Coffee.....lbs.....	194,073	Tallow.....".....	3,703
Salt.....bbls....	5,750	Goatskins.....skins..	24,983

\* NOTE.—Some of the most important information in the present article is derived from the valuable labors of James J. Jarvis, Esq., Director of the Government Press, Honolulu, author of the *History of the Hawaiian Islands*; and we also acknowledge our indebtedness to Cheever's Life in the Sandwich Islands, lately issued from the press, (and rich every one should get,) for many of our statistical tables.



Irish Potatoes.....	bbls....	5,331	Hay.....	tons....	281
Sweet ".....	".....	4,178	Pickles.....	bbls....	901
Onions.....	".....	232	Coral.....	blocks..	1,028
Yams.....	".....	144	Mustard-seed.....	lbs....	1,023
Arrow-root.....	lbs....	6,956			
Cattle 50, Horses 2, Mules 1, Sheep 10, Goats 10, Swine 179, Fowls 49 doz., Turkeys 19 doz., Eggs 2,010 doz., Brooms 410 doz., Pumpkins 4,678, Melons 950, Cocoanuts 2,100, Coconut door-mats 119, Wood 4 cords, Mat-bags 500, Oranges 22,000, Charcoal 69 bags.					
Limes, Lime Juice, Peppers, Bananas, Poi, Butter, Rope, Furniture, and Sashes.....					
Total value as per Manifests.....					\$603 33
					\$139,007 79

## LANA'INA.

Sugar.....	lbs....	152,407	Sweet Potatoes.....	bbls....	\$5,453
Molasses.....	galls..	18,955	Onions.....	".....	1,606
Syrup.....	".....	66,577	Yams.....	".....	20
Coffee.....	lbs....	14,355	Arrow-root.....	lbs....	2,676
Salt.....	sacks..	1,912	Pickles.....	bbls....	627
Lime.....	bbls....	80	Coral.....	blocks..	1,428
Irish Potatoes.....	".....	46,626			

Sheep and Goats 182, Swine 444, Fowls 86½ doz., Eggs 504 doz., Pumpkins 62,016, Cocoanuts 22,450, Oranges 117,500, Melons 4,610, Pine-apples 14,300, Cabbages 1,600, Sweetmeats 212 galls., Lime juice 304 galls., Beans 64 bbls., Corn 5 bbls., Butter 157 lbs., Vinegar 168 galls., Wood 61 cords, Lumber 21,072 feet.

Total value as per Manifests, from Laha'ina.....	\$241,314 84
" " " " Honolulu.....	139,007 79

Value of Domestic Produce exported and furnished to ships at the three ports on the island of Hawaii, (estimated).....	20,000 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 342 merchant vessels at Honolulu. Average \$200 each.....	68,400 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 106 whale-ships (inside) at Honolulu. Average \$250 each.....	26,500 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 13 ships of war and surveying vessels at Honolulu. Average \$500 each.....	6,500 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 112 whale-ships at Laha'ina. Average \$320 each.....	34,640 00
Domestic supplies furnished to 127 merchant ships at Laha'ina. Average \$80 each.....	10,160 00

Total value of domestic exports and supplies furnished at Honolulu and Laha'ina, for the year 1850.....	\$536,522 63
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## Gross receipts at Custom-houses of Oahu, Maui, and Kauai, for 1850.

## HONOLULU.

Import duties paid on Goods and on Spirits and Wines actually consumed.....	\$91,953 11
Transit duties.....	443 42
Harbor dues.....	12,644 54
Stamps.....	2,579 50
Fines and forfeitures.....	877 46
Interest.....	323 50
Storage.....	3,245 15

\$112,066 68

## HARBOR MASTER.

Shipping and discharging Seamen.....	2,711 00
Stamps.....	1,413 00

116,190 68

## LANA'INA.

Import duties.....	\$2,323 48
Transit duties.....	39 92
Harbor dues.....	1,299 60
Stamps.....	1,276 00
Shipping Seamen.....	264 15
	\$5,203 15

## WAINEA, KEALAKEAKUA, AND HILO.

Stamps and Harbor dues.....	119 90
	\$5,316 05
Add amount from Honolulu.....	116,190 68
Total receipts.....	\$121,506 73

*Condition of the Revenue of the Hawaiian Kingdom, for the year ending  
31st of March, 1851.*

From cash on hand last year.....	\$46,191 18
The Bureau of Foreign Imports.....	118,901 38
" Internal Commerce.....	22,514 75
" Internal Taxes.....	52,455 26
" Fees and Perquisites.....	15,314 72
" Coasting Trade and Fisheries.....	4,269 27
" Government Realizations.....	26,495 22
" Fines and Penalties.....	14,404 25
	<b>\$330,546 03</b>

*Table of Disbursements.*

For the King and Privy Council.....	\$19,966 16
" Department of the Interior.....	140,030 52
" Foreign Relations.....	4,730 64
" Finance.....	15,080 08
" Public Instruction.....	28,825 07
" Law.....	10,106 84
For miscellaneous expenses.....	10,106 84
For amount disbursed on bills payable, less than has accrued on bills receivable.....	2,126 49
	<b>\$250,707 56</b>
Balance.....	79,838 47

*Foreign Merchant Vessels, and Hawaiian Vessels from Foreign Voyages, en-  
tered at the Ports of Honolulu and Lahaina during the year 1850.*

Nation.	HONOLULU		LAHAINA	
	Total Number of Vessels.	Total Tonnage.	Number of Vessels.	Amount of Tonnage.
United States.....	166	54,872	111	—
Great Britain and Colonies.....	118	24,177	6	—
France.....	8	2,300	—	—
Tahiti.....	7	367	1	—
Peru.....	2	1,300	—	—
Norway.....	2	475	—	—
Hawaii.....	14	1,732	8	—
Chili.....	8	1,283	—	—
Russia.....	3	838	—	—
Spain.....	2	600	—	—
Mexico.....	2	309	—	—
Hanover.....	4	560	1	—
Belgium.....	1	533	—	—
Denmark.....	3	448	—	—
Bremen.....	1	110	—	—
Sweden.....	1	400	—	—
	<b>342</b>	<b>90,304</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>—</b>
Numbers entered in 1840.....	157	—	18	—
Increase in 1850.....	185	—	109	—

*Vessels of War and Government Surveying Vessels entered at Honolulu, 1850.*

Date of Arrival.	Name.	Nation.	Guns.	Where from.	Where bound.
Jan. 15.....	Ewing.....	U. S. America.	—	California via Hilo.	California.
Feb. 20.....	Wanderer.....	Great Britain..	10..	Tahiti.....	San Francisco.
May 6.....	Herald.....	"	22..	Mazatlan.....	Arctic Ocean.
June 6.....	Swift.....	"	6..	"	Tahiti.
" 24.....	Enterprise.....	"	—	Plymouth, England.....	Kotzebue Sd.
" 29.....	Bayonnaise.....	France.....	24..	Macao, China.....	Tahiti.
July 1.....	Investigator.....	Great Britain..	—	Plymouth, England.....	Kotzebue Sd
" 3.....	Cockatrice.....	"	6..	Mazatlan.....	Valparaiso.
Oct. 16.....	Herald.....	"	22..	Port Clarence.....	Hong Kong.
" 23.....	Dolphin.....	U. S. America..	10..	Hong Kong.....	San Francisco.
Nov. 10.....	Falmouth.....	"	24..	S. Francisco via Hilo..	South Pacific.
Dec. 13.....	Serieuse.....	France.....	24..	San Francisco.....	—
" 25.....	Baikal.....	Russia.....	4..	Ochotak.....	—

*Whale-ships entered at the Ports of Honolulu and Lahaina during the year 1850.*

HONOLULU.						LAHAINA.	
American.....	106	Tonnage.	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.	105	
French.....	11		bbls.	bbls.	lbs.	3	
Bremen.....	6	46,935.....	15,106.....	256,495.....	2,621,000	4	
British.....	2						

#### ART. IV.—THE DELTA OF NORTHWESTERN MISSISSIPPI.\*

I PROPOSE to furnish for the Review some sketches, more descriptive than historical or statistical, of that portion of the great Delta of the Mississippi, within the boundaries of the counties of Tunica, Coahoma, Washington, Issaquena, and Sunflower, in the State of Mississippi. Your periodical being practical as well as scientific, and intended also to develop and make known the resources of the "Southern and Western States," I claim that the facts, as well as information which I shall endeavor to furnish, hastily but truthfully, in the premises, will be valuable as well as useful, and thus entitled to a "place" in your journal. Permit me to premise by stating that nearly every acre in the above-named counties is essentially delta, or bottom land,—nearly the whole vast surface comprised within their limits being almost perfectly level. Those counties contain, in round numbers, about 3,530,000 acres of land, and it is distributed about as follows, to wit :

Tunica county contains about.....	350,000 acres.
Coahoma.....	630,000 "
Bolivar.....	600,000 "
Washington.....	750,000 "
Issaquena.....	650,000 "
Sunflower.....	550,000 "
Total lands in said counties.....	3,530,000 "

Of lands now entered and taxable, there are in

Tunica county about.....	158,000
Coahoma.....	100,000
Bolivar.....	300,000
Washington.....	450,000
Issaquena.....	300,000
Sunflower.....	130,000

The balance of the lands is either set apart for school purposes, subject to entry, held for sale for levee purposes, or to be sold as hereafter mentioned, by the State of Mississippi, for internal improvements.

In the cultivation of a small portion of the above lands, there are employed about 20,000 slaves—as follows, to wit :

In Washington county, about.....	8,000
" Issaquena.....	6,000
" Bolivar.....	2,500
" Coahoma.....	2,000
" Tunica.....	1,000
" Sunflower.....	800
Total slaves employed.....	20,300

\* We are always pleased to receive sketches of this character.—EDITOR.

This statement includes men, women and children. On these lands there are produced, and shipped to New-Orleans annually, about 100,000 bales of cotton; the net value of which will average nearly \$3,000,000. There are over fifty thousand head of horned cattle in these counties.

In 1849 they paid into the state treasury, as state tax, independent of levee taxes, and such as are imposed for county purposes, as follows:

## TAXES FOR 1849.

Washington County.....	\$12,535. 16
Issaquena.....	7,871. 55
Bolivar.....	3,330. 74
Coahoma.....	1,987. 86
Tunica.....	1,792. 53
Sunflower.....	1,375. 82

Total state tax,..... \$28,893 66.\*

These lands are situated between the 32d and 35th degrees of latitude; front on the Mississippi River nearly 300 miles, and have an average depth of about 45 miles. Nearly two-thirds, if not more, of this immense front on the Mississippi River has been leveed and secured from inundation. This has been accomplished by private enterprise, and through an equitable system of county levee taxation. The good work of completing these levees is not being abandoned by any "manner of means." On the contrary, the enterprising, intelligent, and industrious citizens of that part of the state are continuing their exertions, and manifesting a laudable zeal to master the old father of waters; and the state has at last come forward to aid them in their enterprise. If the same activity is manifested for the next two years, which has exhibited itself in the past two, the whole river front will be permanently and securely leveed, and this great wilderness of unsurpassed fertility will be permanently and amply secured for safe and successful cultivation. When such is the case its resources need but be made known to make it, in truth, "blossom as the rose." By an act of the Legislature of the State of Mississippi, passed in the year 1852, the Secretary of State is required to issue six hundred thousand acres of land-scrip, in quarter sections, to be used in the construction of levees in the above-named counties, in the proportion following, to wit:

To Tunica County.....	32,000 acres.
" Coahoma.....	250,000 "
" Bolivar,.....	104,000 "
" Washington,.....	100,000 "
" Issaquena.....	100,000 "

That amount of land-scrip is to be handed by the Secretary of State to the officers of each county as aforesaid, and they are authorized to sell the land for fifty cents per acre. The legislature also authorized and required the sale of the 500,000 acres of internal improvement lands donated by Congress to this state, to be sold at a minimum of two dollars per acre, the money accruing from the sale

\* These data are derived from the Report of Auditor Swann, in 1850.



of the first sixty thousand acres sold to be appropriated to the construction of levees, as follows :

To De Soto county.....	\$5,000
" Tunica.....	15,000
" Coahoma.....	75,000
" Bolivar.....	25,000

Thus these counties will receive, when the lands are sold, \$120,000 in cash, and 586,000 acres of land, to be used by them in the completion of their levees. These lands, or some of them, are to be sold at Jackson on the third Monday of November, 1852. Tunica, Coahoma, Bolivar, Washington, and Issaquena, each have a levee law, by which all the taxable lands in those counties are taxed from five cents to ten cents per acre for levee purposes. These facts need but to be stated to produce conviction that the levees will be completed, and permanently finished, and kept in repair. When this is done, there will be brought into market more than land enough to make one thousand large plantations within the limits mentioned in this article.

But little is known, except by its own citizens, or by those who have witnessed it, of this vast and exceedingly fertile tract of bottom land; and my object in this communication is to bring it into notice, and enable those who are in search of valuable, cheap, healthy, and admirably-located plantations, to know where they can find them. General Augustus W. McAllister, of Wild-wood, whose post-office is Greenville, Washington county; Hon. J. S. Yerger, same post-office; Capt. P. Burwell Starke, Lake Bolivar; Senator Alcorn, Coahoma; George N. Parks, Esq., Tallula, Issaquena county; General Byrne, of Tunica, and Colonel Murdock, of McNutt, Sunflower county, could give reliable and accurate information as to the location and value of these lands to such as need or would like to have information. A publication of this communication in your valuable Review will put the planting interest on inquiry, and may induce citizens of other states to make publicly known the resources of their own land.

Very respectfully, &c.,

VICKSBURG, Sept. 4th, 1852.

A. K. SMEDES.

#### ART. V.—COMMERCIAL INDEPENDENCE OF THE SOUTH.

In our last number appeared a circular from some of the merchants of Baltimore, inviting a convention of delegates from all the commercial cities of the South, to be held in that city some time during next December.

Having several years ago published in the Review most of the documents which emanated from the Southern Commercial Conventions held in 1838-9, (to be found also in Vol. III. of our work on the Industrial Resources, &c. of the South,) we do not know of a more acceptable service that could be rendered in this juncture, than the publication of the remaining document, which we were unable to obtain at the time, but which has lately come to hand in a package of rather moth-eaten pamphlets. It is in the shape of an "Address to the People of the Southern and Southwestern States," from a committee

consisting of A. B. Longstreet and Joseph Cummings, Esqs., of Georgia, Gen. McDuffie, Col. Blanding and C. G. Memminger, of South Carolina.

Although there are some positions in the address with which we do not fully concur, and others which time has not sustained, the main points of argument are irresistible, and quite as true and applicable in 1852 as they could have been in 1838, and therefore we do not hesitate to give it entire, not even excluding the passages which indicate a political bias. It becomes the South carefully to weigh and consider such documents, and if they are sound and true, to act upon them without delay.

The resolutions upon which the address was founded, are as follows.—[Ed.]

1. *Resolved*, That a direct trade is the natural channel of communication between nations, which offer to each other the best market for their natural productions; and that the intervention of a third party must operate as a tax upon the exchanges between them.

2. *Resolved*, That the Southern and Southwestern States of this Union afford those staples with which are purchased nearly the whole foreign imports of the country; that they are the consumers of a large portion of these imports, and ought naturally themselves to furnish the channel through which the exchange is made; that on no occasion have their citizens been found incapable of maintaining themselves in fair competition with other sections; and that the diversion of their trade from its natural channels, must have been brought about by the unequal action of the federal government, or by the abstraction of our people towards other pursuits.

3. *Resolved*, That in the opinion of this Convention, such a state of things should no longer continue; that the present condition of the commercial relations of the country, and the disruption of the existing channels of trade, afford an opportunity of breaking down the trammels which have so long fettered our commerce, and of restoring to the South its natural advantages; and that it is incumbent upon every man, who has at heart the good of his country, to lend his best exertions to the promotion of these objects, and to establish our trade upon a sound and permanent basis.

4. *Resolved*, That this Convention is fully aware of the difficulties to be overcome in the prosecution of their enterprise; but nothing daunted thereby, and fully relying upon the public spirit and zealous co-operation of their fellow-citizens, they are determined to advance with untiring perseverance; and with that view, do earnestly recommend the adoption of the following measures:

1. That an effort should be made to afford to the importers and purchasers at southern seaports, the same facilities which are offered elsewhere; and with this view it is recommended that the banks in the seaports should immediately apply a portion of their respective capitals to the purchase of foreign exchange, and to the procurement of credits or funds in Europe; and that they should afford the use of the same to the importing merchant, upon a discount or collateral pledge of such good paper as he may take from the merchants of the interior, and that this accommodation be afforded as well upon paper having more than six months to run, as upon that having less; and that the banks of the interior co-operate by collecting and remitting the proceeds of such paper to the banks on the sea-coast.

2. That with a view to the important subject of equalizing the exchanges between the southern and southwestern states and territories, this Convention earnestly recommend to the various banks of the principal cities, or such as may be conveniently located, to receive the bills of each other in their general business, and to adopt such arrangements for settlements, at short periods, as they may deem suitable and proper; the banks

against whom the balance should fall, to furnish funds for settling the same, or to pay an interest of six per cent. from the period of settlement.

3. That the merchants of the South and Southwest be earnestly recommended to give preference to the importers in their own markets, and that they afford them an opportunity of fair competition with other sections, by making their first calls for purchases at southern and southwestern seaports; and on the other hand, that the merchants at the seaports shall, forthwith, set about importing such stocks of goods, as will ensure, at fair rates, a supply to the demand from the merchants of the interior.

4. That an earnest and united effort should be made to draw home the capital invested by the South in banks and companies abroad; and to employ the same, together with such surplus capital as exists at home, in mercantile operations; and that with this view men of influence and character be earnestly invited to afford the benefit of their example, by entering into limited partnerships, under the laws lately passed by the states of Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee and Florida.

5. That this Convention cannot but view with deep regret the neglect of all commercial pursuits which has hitherto prevailed among the youth of our country, and which has necessarily thrown its most important interests into the hands of those who, by feeling and habit, are led into commercial connections elsewhere. This Convention, therefore, cannot too earnestly recommend the speedy adoption by all their fellow-citizens of measures *to introduce commercial education among our youth; to train them up to habits of business, and thereby to establish a body of merchants whose every interest and feeling shall be centered in the country which has reared and sustained them.*

5. *Resolved*, That this Convention is of opinion that the establishment by manufacturers in foreign countries of agencies in the chief southern ports, for the sale of the various articles exported by them to the United States, would conduce to the restoration of the direct foreign trade of the South; and that similar establishments for the sale of domestic manufactures would also be desirable.

**FELLOW-CITIZENS.**—The Committee appointed to carry into effect the seventh resolution of the Merchants' Convention, believe they cannot better subserve the purposes of their appointment, than by calling your attention to the existing relations of the Northern and Southern States,\* and improving the evidence which they afford, of the importance of the enterprise which the Convention have in view.

At this moment (1838) pecuniary embarrassment, in a greater or less degree, pervades the whole country: every bank within its limits has suspended payment: there is hardly a dollar of specie in circulation: the moneyed institutions of the North and of the South, in point of solvency, are upon an equal footing: the foreign commerce of the country is sustained almost entirely by Southern productions: the foreign creditors are paid in Southern productions: and yet, exchanges between the North and the South are from seven to forty per centum in favor of the former: a Northern bank-note sustains the same relative value to a Southern bank-note: Southern credit is lamentably depressed, while Northern credit is comparatively firm: the dockets of our courts are crowded with suits brought

\* When we speak of the *South* and the *Southern States*, we embrace in the terms the Southwestern States.

by Northern houses against Southern houses. To meet the issues of these suits, our people are constrained to sue one another; and thus, their distresses are extended, and embittered by the prospects of the future. In the mean time our Northern brethren are reaping rich fruits from their vantage-ground. They send hither their funds—exchange them at an enormous premium for Southern funds—turn these into Southern staples (cash articles) at par—draw bills upon them, which they sell at like profit—reinvest the proceeds in the same way, and renew the operation as often as their own ready means of exchange and transportation will allow. We do not pretend to say that this is the universal, or even the prevailing mode of operation, or that it is confined exclusively to Northern men. Northern funds, to be the basis of this system, must have a currency at the South, which in but few instances they have: but that this has been the mode of procedure in some instances, and that the same thing is daily effected through other instrumentalities, we believe admits of no doubt. Nor let us be understood as attaching any blame to those who thus avail themselves of their means to profit by the times. It is a singular feature in this dismal picture, that the pecuniary embarrassments of the Southern states increase as they recede from the North; and (their age and population considered) in an exact ratio to their agricultural resources.

Is this a natural state of things? If it be, we must acquiesce in the necessity that dooms us to it. But self-respect, to say nothing of self-interest, demands that we search for the causes of it, in order that we may reform it, if it be remediable. A brief recurrence to the commercial and financial history of the United States will teach us that, in the natural order of things, the positions of the two sections should be precisely reversed; and that nothing will more effectually secure to the people of the South their natural advantages, than a direct trade between them and foreign nations.

Before we commence the review, we take leave to observe, that we cannot assent to the opinion too often expressed, that the embarrassment of the Southern people is the result of a wild and reckless spirit of adventure and speculation on their part. That this may to some extent have had its effects, is very probable; but that it is the leading cause of their distress, we are not prepared to admit. We believe, that could it now be known what were the resources and prospects of all who have failed, at the time when they incurred the debts which effected their ruin, it would be found, that not one in twenty of them is justly chargeable with imprudence even, in incurring those debts. Is the planter, whose cotton crop netted him fifty thousand dollars in December, 1836, and who in January following, when cotton was on the advance, incurred a debt of forty thousand dollars, in order to double the succeeding crop, to be charged with folly, because in May, 1837, his property sunk to nothing, from causes which human prudence could not have foreseen? Is the merchant, who sold out his stock in 1836 at a large profit, and having found it too small for the demand, doubled it, and with it his debt, to meet the demand of 1837, to be called a wild adventurer, be-



cause he did not foresee the disasters of that year! And yet probably few, who sunk under the pressure of that year, were as indiscreet as these men are supposed to have been. None blame the creditors; but equal censure belongs to the man who runs extravagantly in debt, and the man who credits him.

The time was, when the people of the South were the largest importers in the country.

"In 1769, the value of the imports of the several colonies was as follows:

Of Virginia.....	£851,140 sterling.
New-England States.....	561,000 "
New-York.....	189,000 "
Pennsylvania.....	400,000 "
South Carolina.....	555,000 "

"The exports were in about the same proportion; Virginia exporting nearly four times as much as New-York; and South Carolina nearly twice as much as New-York and Pennsylvania together; and five times as much as all the New-England States united.

"The same relative proportion of imports is preserved until the adoption of the federal constitution, when we find them to be in the year 1791 as follows:

Of New-York.....	\$3,322,000
Virginia.....	2,486,000
South Carolina.....	1,520,000

"There are no data to show the imports into the several states from the year 1791 to 1820, but the general fact may be assumed, that the import trade of New-York and other northern states, has been constantly progressing, while that of Virginia and South Carolina has as regularly diminished. From 1821, to the present time, we have sufficient data, and they exhibit the following, as the state of the import trade:

New-York.	Virginia.	South Carolina.
1821.....\$23,000,000	1821.....\$1,073,000	1821.....\$3,000,000
1822.....35,000,000	1822.....864,000	1822.....2,000,000
1823.....29,000,000	1823.....681,000	1823.....2,000,000
1824.....36,000,000	1824.....639,000	1824.....2,400,000
1825.....49,000,000	1825.....553,000	1825.....2,150,000
1827.....39,000,000	1827.....431,000	1827.....1,800,000
1829.....43,000,000	1829.....375,000	1829.....1,240,000
1832.....57,000,000	1832.....550,000	1832.....1,213,000

"Thus the import trade of New-York has gradually increased from £189,000 sterling, about \$840,000, in the year 1769, and from about three millions of dollars in 1791, to the enormous sum, in 1832, of fifty-seven millions of dollars! While Virginia has fallen off, in her import trade, from two and a half millions of dollars, in 1791, to \$375,000 in 1829, and \$550,000 in 1832, not a great deal more than the freight of half a dozen ships!

"From these calculations, a few curious facts appear. The imports of New-York were, in 1832, seventy times as great as they were in 1769, and nearly twenty times more than they were in 1791. Virginia, on the other hand, imported, in 1829, about one-eleventh of what she did in 1769, and about one-seventh of what she did in

1791. In a period, too, of eight years, the aggregate imports of New-York amounted to 311 millions of dollars; those of South Carolina to about 16 millions, and those of Virginia to about five millions! New-York imported, therefore, in 1832, eleven times as much as Virginia did in eight years preceding, and nearly four times as much in the single year of 1832, as South Carolina imported in a period of eight years. Again, New-York imported in one year (1832) nearly fifty times as much as South Carolina in the same year, and about 110 times as much as Virginia."

We acknowledge our indebtedness for the foregoing extract to a writer in the Richmond Whig, who, under the signature of "Patrick Henry," has favored the public with a series of numbers, assistant to our purpose, which are worthy to be read by every southron.

At the conclusion of the last war with Great Britain, Georgia commenced quite a brisk and profitable importing business; but it declined in a few years, and its subsequent history may be seen in the history of the trade of South Carolina.

Having shown the decline of southern trade, we proceed to inquire into the causes of it. In the course of our research, the reader will discover the prime cause of our present embarrassments.

The Committee of Ways and Means, in their report of the 5th March last, say: "Our collectors have had under their control a gross revenue of 946,000,000, and our land receivers 107,000,000, making 1,053,000,000. They not only had control of this vast amount, but they were permitted to pay without warrant from the treasury, and before the money passed out of their hands, all the expenses of our custom-houses and land-offices and debentures, which alone amounted to four or five millions annually, and sometimes more."

Though we find some difficulty in reconciling this statement with the actual receipts and disbursements of the government as reported annually to Congress, and with the expenses of collection as discoverable from the sources of information which lie within our reach, without supposing greater losses in the transit of the public funds to the treasury than are stated to have occurred, it is probable that our difficulty arises from our limited means of research, and that the committee are substantially, if not literally correct.

The nine hundred and forty-six millions of revenue, raised from the customs, were levied upon foreign merchandise, received in exchange for domestic productions; for though the term *customs*, in financial language, embraces duties on tonnage, clearances, light-money, &c. &c., these are comparatively so insignificant, that they will not materially affect the estimate. Those who think differently, may allow for them the odd forty-six millions. Of the domestic productions given in exchange for the foreign merchandise, nearly three-fourths were of southern growth—we will say two-thirds, which we know, in the whole estimate, to be under the mark. Without disturbing the vexed question, "who pays the duties?" we may state then, what all will admit, that the government has been indebted to southern industry for six hundred and thirty millions of money. If the expenses of collecting one billion and fifty-three millions of reve-

nue, were "from four to five millions annually, and sometimes more," it may safely be assumed, that the expenses of collecting the six hundred and thirty millions amounted to one million annually. Had the southern people, then, shipped their own produce to foreign markets, and brought the return cargoes to their own ports, they would have had eight and forty millions distributed among them since 1789, simply in the pay of their revenue officers. This would have gone into the pockets of individuals, to be sure; and so goes all that constitutes the wealth of a nation. *Here* would it have been received, and *here* expended. Insignificant as it may seem, while we are contemplating billions and hundreds of millions, when we reflect upon the influence which the comparatively trivial sum received by the states from the surplus revenue has had upon the southern states, we cannot doubt that its effects would have been most benignly felt. This sum, divided among the cities of Norfolk, Wilmington, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and Orleans, would have quieted many a disturbed bosom in the trying reign of the protective system. Savannah's portion of it would have defrayed the whole expenses of the government of Georgia for more than thirty years; nor, it is believed, would the portions of the other cities have done less for their states. Whatever the sum may have been worth, we must be considered as having thrown it away ourselves. Let us at least remember, that if the tariff should ever be revived, (and hints to that effect have recently fallen from high authority on the floor of Congress,) a direct trade will in some measure mitigate its rigor; and thus far tend to the preservation of the Union.

If we suppose the value of the goods upon which the six hundred and thirty millions of duties were levied, to have been but four times the value of the duties, it amounted to \$2,500,000,000. How were these goods brought to this country and distributed? The northern merchant has come hither and bought from the southern planter produce of equal value, abating from the price all the expenses, direct and incidental, of transportation. He has insured them in northern offices, and shipped them abroad in his own vessels—exchanged them at a small profit for foreign merchandise—brought it home—paid one-fourth its value to the government—added that amount and all the expenses of importation, and fifteen to twenty per cent. for his profits, to the price, and exposed it for sale. The southern merchant has now gone to him—lingered the summer through with him at a heavy expense—bought a portion of these goods—reshipped them in northern vessels to southern ports—added twenty-five per cent. more to the price, to cover his expenses and profits—and sold them to the southern planter. All the disbursements made in this process, save such as are made abroad, are made among northern men; all the profits, save the southern merchant's, are made by northern men; and the southern planter, who supplies nearly all the foreign goods of the country, gets his portion of them burdened with every expense that the government, merchant, insurer, seaman, wharfinger, drayman, boatman, and wagoner can pile upon them. His burdens of course,

are needlessly increased, by the amount of the expenses incurred in landing the goods at northern ports, and bringing them thence to southern markets. Every item in the endless catalogue of charges, except the government dues, may be considered a voluntary tribute from the citizens of the South to their brethren of the North: for they would all have gone to our own people, had we done our own exporting and importing. Will the reader compute the amount of them, on twenty-five hundred millions' worth of goods, and make a fair allowance for the portion of them consumed at the South?

Our planters, not content with their portion of the tribute, crowd their plantations with cotton, corn, rice and tobacco, and then pay the southern merchant, to pay the northern merchant, to pay the northern farmer for the flour which they consume; and compel all their neighbors to do the like. In this way a goodly number of unascertainable millions more move annually from South to North. In September last, we had a painful exhibition of the fruits of our agricultural policy. In that month, a bale of cotton and a barrel of canal flour commanded the same price in Georgia. We were disposed to doubt this statement when we first heard it; but upon referring to the prices current in that month for the city of Augusta, where the one article uniformly stands at nearly the highest, and the other nearly the lowest prices in the state, we find actual sales of about ninety bales of the first, quoted at an average of 55-8 cents per pound; and in two instances, sales of very small lots, at 5 cents per pound, while quotations of flour, at wholesale prices, stood firmly at 12 and 13 dollars per barrel. We know of many sales, about this time, at 15 and of some at 16 dollars per barrel in the same city. At these rates, we could name a hundred places in Georgia, where northern flour is in constant use, and where a bale of the lowest priced cottons would not have purchased a barrel of flour. Here, to be sure, the opposite extremes of the two articles were brought together; but the force of the example is but little weakened when it informs us, that there was not probably a bale of uplands in the state, that would have purchased three barrels of flour.

To this head of voluntary tribute may be referred the millions expended annually by our people in visits of pleasure to the North. These are unobjectionable in themselves, and under different circumstances would be commendable; but when it is considered that they swell the streams of wealth which are constantly flowing from a waning to a growing people, they deserve our notice, if not our censure. There is a point in view, however, in which they assume an importance not to be overlooked. They distinctly mark a difference of habit between the northern and southern people, from which the first are yearly gainers, and last losers, to the amount of several millions. In the natural order of things, our northern brethren should spend twice as much with us in winter as we do with them in summer; for they double us in white population: but it may well be questioned, whether their disbursements in this way equal a third of ours. The main reason of the difference is,



that they are a home-abiding, economical people; while we incline too much to the opposite traits of character. Hence their gains, which are not larger in wealth than in honor. Let us profit by their example.

Nor would it be out of place here to mention the indirect, consequential losses which we have sustained by our neglect of foreign trade. Without overstepping the bounds of reasonable conjecture, we could enlarge the number of these to a wearisome extent; but time will not permit us to recount them. Let us take a single example, deduced from history, speaking directly to our purpose. In 1835, the long-endured national debt was extinguished, after having absorbed from the treasury about four hundred and twenty-two millions of dollars. The larger portion of this sum was paid to citizens of the United States; of whom, those residing north of the Potomac were, to those residing south of it, in the ratio of 165 to 11; and those in Massachusetts, New-York and Pennsylvania, to those in all the other states, as 150 to 176. Whence, but from their commerce, did the northern states acquire the means of loaning so largely to the government? Whence, but from the same source, did three states acquire the power to loan thirteen times as much as all the southern states put together? And with the power to lend, was it no advantage to them to have been enabled to lend upon the best security in the world?

So much for our own voluntary self-improvement. A word or two upon those contributions which we have made to the fortunes of our northern brethren, and which may be denominated compulsory.

The actual disbursements of the general government have been about one billion of dollars, exclusive of the surplus revenue. The greater part of this immense sum was disbursed among the several states. A ratable distribution of this fund between the northern and northwestern, and southern and southwestern states, as they now stand, would have been *nearly* as follows:

According to whole population, as.....	7 to 5
" " white " .....	7 to 3
" " representation .....	5 to 3
" " area .....	4 to 5

How have they actually been? Up to 1830, there had been expended in the several states and territories two hundred and eighteen millions of public money, in fortifications, light-houses, public debt, pensions and internal improvements; of which sum, one hundred and ninety-five millions were disbursed in the northern and northwestern states; and twenty-three millions in the southern and southwestern. The national debt constitutes by far the largest item in this account, and it was but equitable that this should be paid to the lenders in the proportions of their loans. But in the matter of internal improvements, the southern division should have received a ninth more than the northern. The disbursements under this head were—north of the Potomac, in round numbers, four millions seven hundred thousand; south of the Potomac, two

hundred and sixty-seven thousand ; or nearly 18 to 1.\* Pensions 17 to 2 ; light-houses (consider our coast) 2 to 1 ; fortifications equal—but ever unequal afterwards, and never to be equal again. The expenditures on the Cumberland road alone, were about nine times the amount expended for internal improvements in all the southern and southwestern states together ; and without that the proportion North and South was as 8 to 1.

But this gives us a very inadequate idea of the extent of the disbursements in the several states. It touches not the first cost, and the annual expenses of the national establishments, most of which are at the North ; nor the pay of the officers, principal and subordinate, in the several departments of the government, most of whom are citizens of the North ; nor the ten thousand other items of expense which go to make up the grand total of \$1,000,000,000. Whoever will take the trouble to follow these expenditures through all their details for a year or two, will come to the conclusion, that of the whole sums disbursed among the states, little short of eight-tenths have gone north of the Potomac, or to citizens domiciled north of the Potomac. About seven hundred thousand dollars of the one billion disbursed, were raised from the customs—that is to say, from duties on foreign importations, two-thirds of which were received in exchange for southern productions. The southern states then have virtually put into the treasury four hundred and sixty-six millions of the seven hundred, and drawn out one hundred and forty. The northern states have put in two hundred and thirty-three millions, and drawn out five hundred and sixty—fractions rejected. The effect of these disbursements is like a shower of gold upon a people. They are far better. They clear rivers, improve harbors, and open roads and canals, which give permanent facilities to commerce. They plant national establishments, gather villages around them, and found other public works, through which there is a constant stream of treasure flowing from the government to the people in their vicinity. Suppose the general government should make Brunswick a naval depot ; would it be a twelve-month before that place would become a busy, thriving city ? And would it be longer before its influence would be felt through the whole state ?

While the southern states were contributing so liberally to the support of the government, they suffered still heavier losses than any that we have mentioned, in the regular, progressive, and almost ruinous depreciation of their great staple. For about fifteen years, except during the frenzied excitement of 1825, it kept unremittingly on the decline ; insomuch, that for six years preceding 1832, it did not average quite ten cents per pound at the places of shipment.† It has ever since, in spite of the disasters of this and the last year,

\* While the above was in the press, the appropriations of the last Congress for Internal Improvements appeared. They are as follows:

North and North-western States,.....	1,189,315
South and South-western States,.....	284,000
New-York alone,.....	358,449

† See Mr. Woodbury's Report on the Cotton Trade.

and of the increased production, averaged about thirteen cents a hundred miles in the interior of every cotton-growing state. That the Restrictive System, as it has been aptly termed, was the cause of its decline, no one, it is presumed, will now dispute. But who can compute the losses which we sustained from that system? The difference between the prices of the article in question, before and since 1832, is but a very poor measure of our losses upon it anterior to that period; because, from that date to the present, it has been materially affected by the tariff; and it will continue to be, even under the duties made permanent by the compromise act. But, by that measure, our losses amount to not less than fifty millions in the short space of six years.

The Restrictive System was not more oppressive to us than propitious to our northern brethren. It was the touch of Midas to their property, and the ablution of Midas to their streams. Through all its operations, it enriched them—in all its consequences, it profited them. With its other effects, it gave them the command of southern trade; and thus increased our dependence upon them, and multiplied our debts to them. Let us not be understood as mentioning these things in the spirit of complaint or disaffection but in confirmation of the positions which we assumed at the opening of our remarks. Indeed, the southern people now reap no small benefit from the measure which has been so favorable to their northern friends. It has enlarged the demand for their principal staple, and opened to them a home-market, where they can be supplied with many articles in daily use at the South, upon better terms than they are offered in any other market.

But, fellow-citizens, how trivial would all our other losses have seemed, had we only secured to ourselves the importer's profits! We have supposed the foreign importations to have equaled in value but four times the amount of the duties levied upon them. We know them to have been worth a hundred millions, and but a hundred millions more—a fact worthy of a passing notice; for as the duties were very low up to the year 1816, it proves that since that time, the Government must have absorbed little short of half the value of all the goods brought into the country. Ten per cent. upon the portion of those goods purchased with southern produce, would have placed at the command of our people all that could minister to taste or sense. But it is gone with the other millions that we have lost by our supineness; and it is only because a gracious Providence has blessed us with resources that never fell to the lot of nation before, that we have not long since had our energies awakened by the perils of utter destitution. But so essential have our staples become to the whole world, that we never want a market for them; and so abundant the crops, that we can live on their lowest prices, and grow rich in an instant, when they command the highest.

From this hasty review it appears, that under circumstances infinitely more adverse to a direct trade with foreign nations than those

which now surround us, we not only carried on such a trade, but took the lead in it. We have seen that with the industry, enterprise and economy of our northern brethren, and with equal favor from the government, we must not only have far surpassed them in wealth, but that we must have been the most prosperous people on the globe. We have seen that our own improvidence, the shrewder policy of northern friends, and the unequal action of the government, have all conspired to bring upon us our present embarrassments. Not that they are the immediate cause, but that they have so far weakened us, and made us so completely dependent upon the people of the North for everything, that the least shock to commerce prostrates us, and the least pressure upon them is turned upon us with redoubled force. We have seen why it is that the one people has risen like the rocket, and the other has fallen like its stick. We have seen that their positions must have been reversed, if the southern people had maintained their foreign trade. The opportunity is now offered to them to resume it, and to reap the rich rewards from it that they have hitherto transferred to other hands. Fellow-citizens, will you not resume it? Everything now encourages you to do so. American commerce is almost released from its fetters; and your resources will enable you to control it. You are not wanting in means, in skill, in ports, or waters, to accomplish the great enterprise. The legislatures of your respective states have made easy the way, and safe the attempt, to accomplish it. They have authorized you to form associations for this purpose, in which you may invest what you please, without hazard of more than you invest. Your interests, social, pecuniary and political, are deeply involved in it. A single, bold, united, manly effort, on your part, and the thing is done. Every citizen must take an interest in it—every citizen, a part in it.

And while we are directing our united exertions to the great object, let us not forget the auxiliary duties which devolve upon us as individuals. Let us reform our habits of extravagance. Let us become an industrious, economical, and a domestic people: and what we practise ourselves, let us teach our children. Let us make more of them merchants—scientific, reputable, practical merchants. Let our planters reform their agricultural systems. Let them resolve to buy nothing that their farms can produce, and to sell breadstuffs under every season. By this policy they will not gain more in independence, than in wealth; for their cotton crops reduced one-fourth would command a higher price than they now do. Nature has practically demonstrated this truth to our planters, again and again; but they will not profit by her lessons. Never does she shorten their crops, that they are not more than compensated in the price; and yet they cannot be persuaded to shorten them themselves. In 1825, a rumor was spread, and generally believed, that the cotton crop on hand would not supply the demand by some fifty or hundred thousand bales; and immediately the article rose from twelve or thirteen cents to thirty. No class of the community are so deeply



interested in a direct trade as they are. For the want of it, as we have seen, they lose in the price of all that they raise, and all that they consume.

But it has been said that we cannot carry on a trade with foreign nations, because we have not the requisite capital. That is to say, the people of the southern states, with the most ample resources that any people of equal numbers ever possessed, cannot do that which all nations have done, from the Phœnicians to the Texans. Have we less capital now than we had in 1769? Did the capital which made Virginia and South Carolina larger importers than all the northern states combined desert them immediately upon the adoption of the Federal Constitution, and flee to the northern states? But what is the capital that sustains the foreign commerce of the United States at this time? Cash? Bank-notes? Why, all the specie and bank-notes in circulation three years ago, between the St. Lawrence and the Sabine, would not have purchased the exports of 1836; and all the specie in Europe and the United States would not purchase the exports for six years to come, at that year's prices—a fact that seems to have been overlooked, when the cotton and specie traffic was so strongly recommended to us in by-gone days. And yet the exports of that year were bought and sold.

How was the operation effected? We will take a southern staple, for the sake of illustration, and a small part to represent the whole crop, and exhibit the process. The northern importer formed commercial connections at the South and in Liverpool. He ordered the southern house to lay in for him a thousand bales of cotton, and to draw on him for the price. The draft was drawn, and sold for southern bank-notes, to some one who wanted northern funds. The notes paid the planter for the cotton, who bought his supplies with them from the merchant, who returned them to the bank, where they remained ready to purchase as much more cotton. The cotton went on to the northern merchant, who shipped it to Liverpool, and upon the credit of it, drew a bill upon the Liverpool house, which he sold for northern bank-notes, and with them paid the southern draft. The Liverpool merchant turned the cotton into goods, shipped them to his correspondent at the North, drew a bill upon him, which he sold, and from the proceeds paid his acceptance. Or, he sold the cotton for cash, paid his acceptance, and procured the goods upon a credit, for the benefit of his American friend, who renewed the operation before the term of credit expired. There are variations in the process, which we have not time to notice. Sometimes it is conducted throughout by agents of foreign houses established in this country. This, we believe, is now the usual mode; and other modes are adopted, according to circumstances: but in this way, or some other, substantially the same, have all the productions of the country which have gone to foreign markets, been bought and sold. No money has come South, gone North, or crossed the Atlantic. The traffic has been conducted entirely upon credit. We have only, therefore, to clothe our merchants with the same credit

that the northern importer has, to enable them to perform the same office. How is this to be done? Simply by giving them the control of as much property as the northern importer possesses. It matters not what kind of property you give them, provided it equals his in value. His property is his capital; it consists of houses, ships, and stocks of different kinds. He never barter these for goods; but the foreign merchant, knowing that he has them, and being anxious to dispose of his own merchandise, very readily credits him upon the strength of his resources. But who supposes that this kind of capital is essential to foreign trade? If the planters of the South would place ten bales in the hundred of their next year's cotton crop in the hands of merchants in the six principal seaports, the merchants in each city would have a capital of more than half a million; quite as good in all respects as any merchant in the Union possesses of so great a value. Nay, far better; for their capital would enter into their trade—would go to Europe possessing all the properties of coin for commercial purposes—would itself establish the owners' credit there—or rather set all credit at defiance, and convert their traffic into a cash business. Does the world produce such a capital for foreign commerce? Indeed, almost all the capital of the country has to be resolved into this, before it is of any value to trade upon abroad.

The next best capital to cotton is money; and this is at the command of the southern people, in any quantity that the most active commerce may require. When, therefore, we are taunted by northern paragraphists, with—"plantations and negroes will not be easily bartered for merchandise in Europe," we excuse the insult in charity to the ignorance which it betrays; and in farther indulgence, we reply, "quite as easily as Wall-street buildings, and Wall-street stocks. The difference between the two kinds of property is, that the one produces that which will buy goods in Europe, and the other does not."

We most earnestly invite the attention of the southern people to this great interest. We beg them to promote it, by availing themselves of the privileges which the legislatures of their respective states have offered to them. We feel well assured that all who make investments in the importing business will reap large profits from it. Managed with common prudence, it must be profitable. Two gentlemen of Savannah, long practised in mercantile business, and of large resources, proposed forming a copartnership in the importing trade, if they could meet with proper encouragement, upon these terms: that the country merchants who might join the association, should be supplied with their goods at cost and charges; and that the firm would look to sales to disinterested individuals for its profits. Under such an arrangement the country merchants would only have to hand in their orders, receive their supplies in a month or two, direct from the factories, and at the lowest rates, and at the same time be drawing a handsome interest upon the capital invested. What country merchant would refuse to become a partner in such

an establishment? But we take higher ground than mere pecuniary interest. We address ourselves to the patriotism of the southern people, to their pride of character, to their regard for the rising race, to their love of independence—and by all these considerations, we solicit them to put at *hazard* something for the recovery of our lost commerce. We believe that a gratuitous contribution to this object, of ten per cent. from a year's income of every citizen of the South, would in the end be to all the best investment that they ever made. We urge upon the citizens of the southern and southwestern states to send representatives to the convention to be held in Augusta in October next, to devise means of accomplishing our all-important object. The advantages of the former meetings have been already most signally felt. They have aroused a spirit of inquiry into this matter, which profoundly instructs, while it greatly amazes us. They have produced concert of action and harmony of feeling in the southern states. By one impulse, they have moved all the legislative bodies of the South to our assistance. They have awakened active exertions in the people of several states, to give their states the lead in the great enterprise. So much have they done; and more will they doubtless do, as their numbers increase. We promise ourselves from them united counsel and a mighty effort in pushing on our great works of internal improvement. From all our seaports, are railways extending in every direction over the broad area of our fertile country—admirable precursors of our admirable design. Future conventions will consider how these may be converted into bonds of union—how they may be combined and extended for the common good. How strongly do they recommend to the people of the South unusual and untiring exertions to reclaim their lost commerce! In eight and forty hours, they will lay the planters' produce upon the shores of the Atlantic—in as many hours more, they will lay the proceeds of it at the foot of mountains. Availing ourselves of our own ports, of our own ships, and of the agency which makes our roads so useful, we may in twenty days place our staples in Europe; and in as many more, receive the avails of them at our own doors. Why, with these advantages before us, should we send our produce a coastwise voyage of a thousand miles; and then travel as far ourselves, to gather a small part of its returns? Since our attention has been directed to this subject, nothing amazes us more, than that it should have been reserved for the year 1836, and for a gentleman in a small town two hundred miles in the interior of Georgia, to arouse the people of the South to a sense of the losses which they were sustaining, and the advantages they were losing, by their neglect of a direct trade with foreign nations. If we improve the hint which that gentleman has dropped, as we should, we will have conferred a favor upon the southern states which they can never over-appreciate, or duly reward.

The Committee deem it unnecessary and inexpedient to enlarge upon the probable benefits that would result from the accomplishment of our purpose. They may be inferred from the retrospect which we have taken.

If the reader require better evidence than this, let him look to the state that has improved the advantages which we have neglected. In 1836, "New-York imported six times the amount of her exports, while the southern and southwestern states imported little more than one-fourth of theirs." Which is in the most prosperous condition? Could we divide between our southern seaports but a fourth of the commerce of the chief city of the Empire State, it would diffuse new life and activity through all the states in which those seaports are located. The Committee on Ways and Means before quoted, say, "the Collector of the City of New-York received in 1836, at the custom-houses, FIVE MILLIONS OF DOLLARS." We know, that in 1833, the officers in pay of the government, who were employed in those "custom-houses," were considerably the rise of three hundred, independent of their private assistants. In 1836, they probably all together amounted to five or six hundred. A village population of collectors, with a million per annum in their pockets, reserved mainly from the proceeds of southern industry! Who can contemplate a city enjoying such a commerce, without the liveliest admiration! To what an interesting train of reflections does it give rise! What throngs of merchants are gathered there, to bear her stores through all the length and breadth of the great republic! How vast the multitude of laborers deriving an easy subsistence, from bearing her merchandise from ship to store, and from store to ship again!

How countless the number of artisans, made busy by her shipping—of clerks, in honorable service, and valuable schooling in every branch of trade—of public officers, drawn thither by her commerce, and feeding on its fruits! While over all, and moving all, and richer than all, the importer presides. He it is, who gives life and spirit and activity to the busy mart. His tribute is fifteen millions per annum levied upon as many of his countrymen. It is to raise your portion of this tribute, fellow-citizens, that you are now exchanging redeemable for unredeemable notes, and giving large odds for the privilege—that you are giving articles, prized by all the world, for paper which, but for your voluntary servitude, would be as worthless to you as the refuse of which it is made—that you are submitting to daily sacrifices in a thousand forms, and fearfully large, to raise funds, the use of which you had never known, had you known how to use your own resources—that you are burdened with debt, and your peace disturbed by the still heavier burdens which it threatens to bring upon you. It was to visit this lordling's domain, ride abroad in his ships, or draw a mite from his stores, that many a worthy son of the South has found a grave in the waters of the Atlantic; and yet, fellow-citizens, he is almost as completely in your power as the nursing is in its mother's. You hold the element from which he derives his strength, and you have only to withdraw it to make him as subservient to you as you now are to him. You have but to speak the word, and his empire is transferred to your own soil, and his sovereignty to the sons of that soil.

Were this done, there would be an end to the unequal barter of



which we have spoken—the doleful cry of northern funds would be hushed—the speculations upon southern distress would cease—the disorders of the currency would be healed—the relation of the commercial agents would be changed. They would be acquaintances and friends, identical in feeling and identical in interest; enjoying mutual confidence and interchanging mutual favors. It would be their interest and their pleasure to sustain each other in times of distress. Debtors would not be summoned two hundred miles from home to answer the demands of their creditors; nor to their other burdens, would be added the onerous costs of the federal judicatories. The fountain and the streams of commerce, lying all within our own land, would enrich it to an extent that none can foresee. Our works of internal improvement would receive a new and ever-accelerating impetus—our drooping cities would be revived—our creeping commerce winged; and all the blessings, physical, moral and intellectual, which invariably accompany affluence and independence, would be ours. Fellow-citizens, shall they be ours? Or is this great enterprise in which our honor, our interest, our safety, our all, is involved, to end in a few convulsive efforts, and a few bootless appeals?

#### ART. VI.—FOREIGN TRADE OF VIRGINIA AND THE SOUTH.\*

THE COMMERCIAL FUTURE OF VIRGINIA—CITIES OF THE CHESAPEAKE—SOUTHERN STEAM LINES, ETC.

1. The advantages of the geographical position of Virginia.
2. The probability that Virginia can secure the export and import trade of the interior.

The Chesapeake Bay, entitled, from its climate and commercial advantages, to be called the American Adriatic, extends from the latitude of  $36^{\circ} 50'$  more than two hundred miles to the north. It varies from 10 to 20 miles in width, affords generally about nine fathoms of water, and is navigable at all seasons for vessels of any class whatsoever. It is free from ice and safe from storms. It receives the commerce of those important tributaries, the Susquehanna, the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, the Rappahannock, York and James and Roanoke Rivers, and the Albemarle Sound. It is the medium of importation and exportation for the tide-water cities of Baltimore, Washington, Georgetown, Alexandria, Fredericksburg, Richmond, Petersburg, Portsmouth and Norfolk—these cities have an aggregate commercial population of more than 300,000. It receives, or ought to receive, the productions of about 80,000 square miles, its legitimate territory, besides what it may hereafter obtain by communications with the interior. The Chesapeake has a single inlet, between Cape Henry, in lat.  $37^{\circ}$ , and Cape

\* For other interesting papers upon Southern Foreign Trade, Steamships, &c., see our work, *Industrial Resources*, etc., vol. iii.

Charles in lat.  $37^{\circ} 12'$ . The powerful fortification of Point Comfort commands this inlet, and protects its commerce. Together with Fortress Monroe, which is situated less than a mile to the south, it commands the entrance of Hampton Roads, an anchorage perfectly safe from enemies or elements. Within 15 miles of this inlet, roads and fortress, is situated the city of Norfolk; which, from its excellent harborage and accessibility, its salubrity of climate, its cheapness and abundance of supplies, can sustain as heavy a commercial population, and can afford as cheap a rate of factorage to the commerce of the interior, as any other Atlantic city whatever. So superior are the natural advantages of this city, that more than 70 years since it was regarded as "the emporium of the Chesapeake and its waters," whilst secondary to this place were "Richmond, Petersburg, Baltimore," and other towns. Perhaps, with a prophetic distrust of the enterprise of his countrymen, the writer added, "accidental circumstances may, however, control the indications of nature."\*

They have certainly done so. An estuary, extending more than 200 miles parallel with the Atlantic coast, its only communication with the ocean being in the immediate vicinage of a port possessing such superior advantages, it follows that all the commerce brought from the interior by artificial lines of transportation, which terminate at every point upon the Chesapeake, must seek the immediate vicinage of this port for exportation.

Upon the indisputable proposition that artificial facilities of transportation being equal, commerce will prefer the most direct, the line of rail-road projected by Virginia from the port of Norfolk, running nearly parallel with her southern boundary, until it strikes the Mississippi at Memphis, with another line, extending to the Ohio River, will afford the most direct line of transit for the commerce of an extensive region to the ocean. The junction of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers is upon the same parallel of latitude with the Capes of Virginia. This then is the base of transportation of the commerce destined to exportation from the Chesapeake. The simplest triangulation of the trade, upon the principle affirmed, will show that any line deflecting from this base, and striking the Chesapeake at any point north of the outlet, must involve the disadvantage of lengthened distance and increased time.

The connections with the interior, which have been referred to, will be found to afford lighter grades, cheaper construction, greater amount and variety of trade, than any transmontane rail-road lines to the north of them. The commerce of the Chesapeake having been shown to the port of Norfolk,† it is now proper to examine what amount of commerce from the interior will seek the Chesapeake for exportation.

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\* Mr. Jefferson.

† It is proper to state that Norfolk is used for the Virginia cities generally. All of them, by their connections, are expected to participate in the export and import trade referred to.

The natural and original line of transportation from the valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, to the Atlantic cities of the Union and to Europe, was the river and coast navigation. This, although so circuitous and tedious as to involve an average voyage of nearly 4,000 miles, and three months, from the point of departure to its parallel upon the Atlantic, was yet more cheap and rapid than the wagonage of the whole interior product and supply, across the intervening country to the ocean. The whole of this vast commerce was compelled to risk the snags of the Mississippi, the climatic injuries of New-Orleans and the Gulf, to double the Cape and thread the treacherous reefs of Florida, and to follow the dangerous and inhospitable coast of the Carolinas. This commerce was compelled, almost, to circumnavigate the Atlantic States, to reach any eastern port in the Union.

But the construction of new and improved methods of direct communication has demonstrated, that commerce will no longer tolerate the delay, injury and expense of this circuit; but it will seek its domestic or foreign market by the shortest and cheapest lines. The commerce of the world will not double Cape Horn, if it can cross at Panama, nor go around Good Hope, if the Mediterranean and Red Sea can be connected.

In considering the probability that the commerce from the states of Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Northern Alabama, Northern Mississippi and Virginia, will seek an outlet by artificial lines of transportation, directly across to the Atlantic, I do not affirm that parallel lines of natural and of artificial transportation, equal in length, are equal in the cost of transportation. The untaxed current of a navigable stream affords the cheapest rate of transportation known. But the cost of transportation is compounded of distance, time, insurance, and the amount of commerce; upon this principle, artificial lines of direct transit have advantages that are rapidly securing the transportation of the most valuable commerce between the producing regions of the interior and the points of consumption or of exportation.

It is not necessary to affirm any normal rule of comparison between natural and artificial lines of transportation, but the following approximates sufficiently near, perhaps, to establish the proposition for which I am contending. An eminent engineer says: "If transportation be four times as much on a rail-road as on a river, general trade will follow the river, unless its winding amount to a mileage quadruple that of the rail-road." This rule has been verified by a comparison of average freights on the rail-road and on the Mississippi River. The ratio may therefore be safely fixed at four to one, though it would of course depend upon the amount of commerce, rate of insurance and time, as well as the comparative length of the competing lines. But the rail-roads will have a monopoly of the mail, merchandise and travel. At once proprietors of the road, and common carriers of the commerce, their administration will possess a unity and system which no other method of transportation can. With these advantages, a tariff of charges may be arranged which will

discriminate in favor of the freights on the more important staples of agricultural productions, and thus the terminal cities of the rail-roads will secure a factorage, which will amply indemnify them for the reduction of freights upon the favored articles—the market value and dividends of the stocks being maintained by the peculiar sources of income which have been referred to. The influence of this important advantage is shown in the transportation of flour from Albany to Boston, and of coal and flour to Baltimore; the rail-roads in both cases crossing water lines which can carry either articles *per se* at a lower rate than would remunerate the rail-road—the indemnity of the roads being in both cases the incidental advantage resulting from the flour and coal trade.

We may then safely suppose that a rail-road not exceeding 800 miles in length, connecting the mouth of the Ohio and Mississippi with the port of Norfolk, with gradients not exceeding sixty feet, against the heavy trade, can successfully compete for the export of produce and the import of merchandise, with the river and coastwise shipment, which I have more particularly described.

This is an extreme application of the principle laid down as ultimately to govern the commercial connection of the interior with the Atlantic ports. Nor is its demonstration indispensable to the development of a sufficient commercial interest in Virginia for the great purposes which have been indicated. The legitimate trade area of the lines of rail-road referred to, will be adequate even without that trade which may be taken from the Mississippi itself. But that the commerce of the Ohio and Upper Mississippi will not continue to double the Cape of Florida, is proven by the success of the Northern Atlantic cities, which have borne off much from the Upper Ohio and Mississippi, whilst Charleston, Savannah and Mobile, have become formidable competitors with New-Orleans for the trade of the Middle Mississippi; *Virginia being almost the only Atlantic state which has not some rail-road connection with the interior.*

But any doubt of the ultimate tendency of trade is dispelled by the admission and action of the city of New-Orleans. It will be remembered that the purchase by that city of the charter of the Tehuantepec Rail-road, was based upon the apprehended loss of the upper trade. This, under the combined competition of the Eastern Atlantic cities, was being drawn off from its natural outlet—the mouth of the Mississippi. The merchants of New-Orleans were desirous to open a direct communication across the Gulf and Isthmus, with the Pacific coast; hence they engaged in the construction of the rail-road. This will effect a saving over the Panama crossing of more than 1,500 miles. New-Orleans will thus be placed upon the line of travel and commerce between the Eastern cities of the United States, the Pacific coast, and the ports of Asia. She will be the emporium of the Gulf trade; but that she expects to lose and is preparing for the loss of much of the commerce legitimately her own; that she believes the line of commerce will be established directly across the Atlantic states, will appear from the proof which follows. In the February number of the Commercial Review is published a paper



headed, "Thoughts on a Rail-road System for New-Orleans, by Thos. B. Hewson, Esq., Civil Engineer," we here find the assertion :

"*That the present (trade) basin of New-Orleans is being acted on by the rail-roads of all the cities of the seaboard from New-York to Mobile.* South of the Ohio the roads of Charleston are at work, and those of Mobile will soon be in operation. Though the domain of New-Orleans is thus parceled out amongst rivals, she yet looks on with as much indifference as though her commercial greatness were inalienable."

Subsequently, Mr. Hewson surrenders entirely the trade of the Upper Ohio. He says :

"The rail-roads of New-York hold Cincinnati at present under their influence, and operating from that point, (Cincinnati,) New-York is sapping the prosperity of Louisville."

He seems to regard Memphis as the diaphragm of the Mississippi; above that point the territory is scarcely debatable: its product must seek exportation across the Atlantic states. New-Orleans may maintain herself against her Atlantic rival by securing the lower trade; yet, to do this, she is advised to construct a system of rail-roads in aid of the Mississippi. The positions of the able and elaborate article referred to may be thus condensed :

1. The commerce of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers may be transported across the Atlantic states and exported from the Atlantic cities.

2. The trade of the Upper Ohio and Mississippi has been thus reversed, and is now exported chiefly from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore.

3. New-Orleans is restricted to the commerce of the Lower Mississippi, and Charleston, Savannah and Mobile are competing for that.

4. New-Orleans must adopt the rail-road system to strengthen her position. The arguments and admonitions of Mr. Hewson are indorsed by the highest authority. De Bow's Review adds, editorially :

"We believe that the suggestions of Mr. Hewson's communication will, if adopted, be worth more to New-Orleans than the discovery of the mines of California to the American people; and we call upon the press in the city, and out of it, to republish the article, and to urge its subject unceasingly upon their readers. The author has shown, with a few bold strokes, the eminently dangerous position which New-Orleans now occupies with reference to western commerce, and the almost certainty of a speedy decadence of her prosperity, already begun, unless the tocsin be sounded, and our citizens are aroused from their sleep of death. Up! up! ye men of capital; ye men of influence and enterprise; for it is no common danger that menaces. The hour is even now. Though the remote contingency of Tehuantepec be achieved, the summer for us is nearly past—the harvest ended—*we are not saved!*"

"Well may Mr. Hewson poetically declare that 'New-Orleans is sleeping in purple pomp, with the deadly aspic at her bosom.'"

I consider, so far as the testimony of interested witnesses and the existence of indisputable facts are concerned, the proposition that the internal trade will prefer a direct transit, is established. The competition amongst the Atlantic ports for this trade will be ultimately determined: 1st. By their relative distances from the interior. 2d. By the relative value and amount of the trade and its appropriate travel. 3d. By the relative cost of the artificial lines.

We may safely affirm, from a comparison of these requisites, that a line drawn from Louisville, or Memphis, to Norfolk, will be the preferred line of commerce, because it comprehends a trade area of the richest and most varied character. It will be of cheaper construction, because it will cross the Blue Ridge, Alleghany and Cumberland Mountains without a tunnel, and with no grades of more than sixty feet to the mile; it will be made with slave-labor, and with western provisions; it offers no climatic obstructions at any season, but passes through temperate and healthful latitudes. If I have been successful in demonstrating a direct commerce between the interior and the Atlantic cities, it will be necessary to prove that the share of that commerce, appropriate to the cities of Virginia, will be sufficient to sustain a line of steamers from Norfolk to Europe.

No one of the Atlantic cities can expect more than to secure the exportation and importation of a trade area appropriate to its position. To realize the anticipated course of commerce we should arrange the great producing region of the West into distinct geographical divisions; each of these divisions will have its lines of artificial transportation, each of which will strike some one of the Atlantic cities of the Union, and all of which will converge upon the ultimate European markets for which their trade is intended.

The immense extent of this producing region, extending through twenty degrees of latitude, comprehending more than half the states of the Union, will prove that any one of the geographical subdivisions referred to, will be adequate to sustain the Atlantic city, or system of cities, appropriate to its course of trade. The northwestern states will, of course, pursue their present lines of transportation; the southern states will export through Charleston, Mobile, Savannah and New-Orleans. The western and southwestern states must trade directly through the port of Norfolk, because it lies directly upon their path to the ocean, and to the market cities of the world.

We then claim specifically the trade of Kentucky, Tennessee, North Alabama and Mississippi, and Virginia, with much of the trade which is collected at the interior cities of Cincinnati, Louisville, Nashville and Memphis.

I do not pause to estimate the value of this trade; it will be sufficient to prove to the most incredulous, our capacity to establish a commerce. But the support of the enterprise which you propose to establish, depends more upon travel, the transportation of merchandise and the remittance of specie, than upon the exportation of the heavy agricultural staples of the interior.

The line of national and international communication, projected and in progress between Virginia and New-Orleans, has been proven to

be part of a great line of travel between the eastern Atlantic cities of the Union, the great southwestern city of New-Orleans, and the proposed crossing by rail-road at the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. That some crossing of the Isthmus of Central America will at present be preferred to the rail-roads wildly projected to cross from Memphis, St. Louis and the lakes, to the coast of Oregon and California, there can be no doubt. There are so many obstacles to a rail-road communication through that vast and unsettled country, that travelers would be unwilling to embark upon a car which might be arrested by flood, fire or savages, in the midst of some boundless prairie, or upon the borders of some impassable swamp. Travel, munitions of war, the mail and specie must seek, for a great length of time, some safer line of transportation. For the trade of Asia the competition would be hopeless. No calculation has offered freights from Asia across the continent of North America at less than \$65 per ton, whilst the current freight around Cape Horn is about \$22. No difference of speed would justify such a difference of freight upon heavy articles. Russia could, with the free navigation of the Amur, and her line of rail-road now under construction, transport the China trade to Europe by a shorter overland route than that projected across the continent of North America, saving entirely the navigation across the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. The projected lines of rail-road and canal communications through Central America, will unite the advantages of cheap freights and rapid transportation in a sufficient degree to ensure the trade and travel communication between Asia and the United States, possibly between Asia and Europe. I may only advert then to the prospect of being upon the presumed line of travel and commercial intercourse between the United States and the 500,000,000 of people in Asia, with whom we are taught to anticipate a commerce.\* We may only advert to the assertion made by highly competent authority,† that the teas alone of China exported to the United States annually amount to \$20,000,000, whilst the foreign commerce with the Oriental nations is estimated at \$200,000,000 annually.

If, however, we confine our anticipations to the mere transportation of the valuable articles of gold, silver, teas, and silks, which we may expect, together with the travel and other accessories intended for American consumption, we must be satisfied that the lines of Virginia rail-road, comprising sections of the most direct line of communication, to which I have adverted, must afford great advantages in building up a foreign commerce, and sustaining a line of ocean steamers. We may note, incidentally, that in regard to tea, an article of prime commerce between Asia and Europe :

"It is said, the finest descriptions do not reach England ; the Mandarins pay very high prices for those teas, and their flavor is so delicate that they would not bear four or five months' sweating in the hold of a ship. Many of the finest teas, drunk in China, would not bear this hot and humid atmosphere. The teas conveyed to Europe

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\* Mr. Palmer's letter to Mr. Clayton, and Mr. Walker's report.

† Tea and the Tea-trade, by G. Nye, Esq., of Canton.

by sea require to be dried and fired to a degree which must injure their quality."\* We may, therefore, fairly anticipate a large share of the transportation of this important article of Asiatic trade from the completed connection between the eastern cities of the Union and the coast of Asia.

The varied resources of these lines, to which I have referred, will enable the city of Norfolk to compete with the southern ports of Charleston and Savannah. Although these cities lie somewhat nearer to the trade-area of the southwest, the saving of coastwise shipment, effected by direct transit, whether the cargo is destined to one of the eastern cities, or the great markets of northern Europe, will give the city of Norfolk immense advantages.

I have thus endeavoured to prove, that Virginia possesses a geographical position which will, upon the completion of the great enterprises in which she is now engaged, ensure her the materials of an important commerce.

I have endeavored, moreover, to prove, that her railroad system will, with its connections, afford the most direct line of communication between New-York and New-Orleans, and thus with our Pacific possessions, and with the coast of Asia.

With these materials of trade and travel, it will not be difficult to establish a line of steamers to Europe.

In considering a subject upon which the commercial independence of Virginia so much depends, it is, of course, important to act with circumspection, and to do nothing which may involve the delay or disappointment of our purpose. The measure requires enterprise, capital, and perseverance; it depends upon the successful development of the materials of domestic and foreign commerce. It will require the earnest co-operation of the various cities interested. It has been the purpose of this address to prove that all these elements exist and may be commanded. But it is important to preserve the confidence of the world, by the deliberate energy of our action. Precipitation is as dangerous as delay. Let us then examine the most efficient method of organizing the proposed enterprise.

The original cost of a line of ocean steamers is very great, but it bears small proportion to their annual working expenses and repairs. They are compelled to employ so much of their space and tonnage in carrying fuel that they cannot, of course, compete with sail vessels for the transportation of heavy and cheap articles of commerce. They must be confined principally to the transportation of merchandise, passengers, the mail, and specie.

Since the commerce of the interior, due to the Chesapeake, will be distributed amongst its cities, it is plain that a union of these cities can alone maintain a line of ocean steamers. Any one of these cities aspiring to be the terminus of such a line must come in competition with Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia; and although state pride and sectional jealousy may, for a time, support such an enterprise, even at a loss, yet the return of national harmony, and

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\* Tea and Tea-trade, New-York, 1850.



the steady attraction of interest, will ultimately prevail, and trade will revert to those points to which it has been accustomed.

If Richmond, or any river city of the Chesapeake, should engage alone in the undertaking, the voyage by steamer would be so much lengthened in time and distance, that the travel, coming from the south, would take a northern line, upon which the ocean steaming would be less. The great problem with the traveler is to diminish the ocean steaming, because of the superior speed and safety of steaming by land. Hence the success of the Boston lines, and hence the proposal to extend a rail-road to points in Upper Canada, from which the passage across the ocean will be reduced to about 2,000 miles. With this preference for land over ocean or river steaming, it is not probable that any one city can sustain alone a line of steamers. The same difficulty will present itself to any attempt on the part of Baltimore to establish an independent line. The traveler intending to cross the Atlantic would naturally prefer going from Baltimore, or New-York, or Philadelphia, to running down to the outlet of the Chesapeake—nearly two hundred miles out of a direct course—and then to return to the direct line of transit from Baltimore to the port of his destination.

It is evidently as impossible that Baltimore can work a line of steamers to Europe under such geographical disadvantages, as that Richmond, Petersburg, or Alexandria, can do so.

If, however, the cities of the Chesapeake shall, by common consent, make Norfolk the terminus of the proposed line, so that, as to the southern transatlantic travel, advantages of time and distance would be equal, with the somewhat superior comfort and safety of a southern over a northern passage across the Atlantic, there can be no doubt that such a line would be perfectly successful; each city would make its own connections by bay or river steamers, and the common steam line from Norfolk would make a time and afford a rate of freight, comparing favorably as to the southern travel, at least with any lines north of it. Each city, then, contributing its patronage of merchandise and remittance, the lines of communication with the interior, to which we have adverted, would cut off the transatlantic travel going north, because, to a traveler crossing the latitude of Norfolk, the inducements which have been mentioned would be sufficient to determine him in its favor. But, if the traveler crosses the latitude of Norfolk, and goes north as far as Baltimore, the tendency will be to go direct to Philadelphia, New-York, or Boston, for a steamer. Indeed, as to Baltimore, a passenger coming from the south, upon the Portsmouth road, might go up the bay to Baltimore in one day, and come down the bay the next, on his way to Europe; he would naturally prefer taking a steamer direct from Norfolk. It may be said that lines from these cities may touch at Norfolk, but travelers will prefer seeking the terminus of a line for the superior certainty. There may be, then, such a combination of the importing interests of the several cities, trading through a common outlet, as will maintain a line of ocean steamers. But there must be perfect harmony and earnest co-operation amongst them.

It is now proper to consider the best method of organizing such an enterprise. There are now pending, before the Legislature of Virginia, several propositions for the establishment of a line of steamers. They are all, however, referable to distinct principles of organization. They propose:

1. A loan of state credit to individuals, with a lien upon the stock insured and other security.

2. A joint-stock association to the capital stock of individuals and corporations, which shall subscribe two-fifths, and the state three-fifths.

3. A joint-stock association to which the cities of Virginia are authorized to subscribe in their corporate capacities, and an obligation is given on the part of the state to loan a given amount upon sufficient security.

These proposals are all based upon a capital of one or one and a half million of dollars. In the first proposal it may be objected that the loan of state credit to one or more individuals will not bring to the enterprise that extended and combined influence necessary to sustain so important an enterprise.

The proposed lien is moreover nominal, because it is based principally upon the investment of the state loan.

The second proposal is objectionable in this, that the state becomes a partner in a joint-stock scheme, the success of which is doubtful, whilst the expenses of working the line are certain. The state may thus become implicated in an adventure from which great loss may result, and thus the whole system of direct trade may be discouraged and rendered unpopular.

The third proposal is free from the objections of the two others. A union of the cities and interior towns of Virginia, as stockholders in a great enterprise of this character, will interest every citizen of those towns to contribute as much as possible to its success.

In any subsequent application to the Federal Government for mail pay, a political influence diffused throughout the state will do more than any individual influence could effect. The loan of money by the state would not be so large as under the first, and if it should result in a partial or total loss, it will be set down to a just effort to establish for ourselves a commercial independence.

There can be no obstacle to the success of the last proposition, provided it combines the cordial co-operation of the cities of the Chesapeake, the city of Baltimore, of course, inclusive. It may be organized at present, under some disadvantages, owing to the incomplete condition of the rail-roads to the interior, destined to act as feeders; and indeed constituting sections of the same great enterprise. But by the time that the plan can be well organized, the stock taken, and the steamers built, there will be an interest and a patronage adequate to establish and sustain the line permanently.

In this address upon the advantages of the commercial position of Virginia, I have intentionally omitted those statistical details, which might have been employed to verify many of the positions I have assumed, that the productions of the interior, and the inter-

course existing and anticipated between the interior and the sea-board, will be adequate to any commercial objects which we may have in view. These detailed proofs have been omitted, because they are accessible to all. So with the time and distances upon competing routes. They have been affirmed from accurate admeasurement, and could, if necessary, be verified. The time, rates of freight, and rates of insurance upon the river, cape and coast line, might have been compared, in detail, with the average rate of freight across the Atlantic states; but I have preferred to take the successful result of experiment and admission. It will be found that the principles laid down are in accordance with the operations of existing lines of commerce, and that they will justify the important enterprise of attracting to the ports of Virginia a large share of the internal trade, and of establishing a line of ocean steamers to Europe, without which, indeed, such an enterprise would be incomplete. With the employment of the physical means of acquiring political power which we possess, and by maintaining, in equality and justice, the invaluable form of Federal Government which unites and preserves us, there can be no doubt that Virginia will be as successful in establishing, and maintaining her "commercial independence," as she has been in securing for herself the blessings of civil and religious freedom, which she has proven herself so competent to appreciate and so well able to preserve.

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#### ART. VII.—CONSTITUENTS OF THE SUGAR-CANE JUICE.

GREEN FECULA, so called in cane-juice, consists of oval vesicles of very variable form and size, full of green globules, whose office appears to be to afford nourishment to the buds or eyes of the plant during the progress of germination. In certain stages of the canes' growth, and under peculiar circumstances, this fecula abounds, imparting to the cane-juice a very green tint. Mere boiling does not appear to deprive these vesicles of their green matter; but the application of various substances has that effect.

Heat produces an expansion of the vesicles, which causes it readily to rise to the surface, together with the ligneous and glutinous textures contained in the juice, in the form of scum.

Lime combines with green fecula and causes a subsidence, which usually takes place simultaneous with the gummy and glutinous coagula. All fleshy plants furnish a large quantity of green fecula, by mechanically breaking down their cellular tissue, as is done in crushing canes.

*Green coloring matter*, (chlorophyle,) green wax, sometimes termed extractive matter, is but a variety of the same genus as the above (green fecula). It has been classed by some among the resins, and by others with the fatty matters; but established facts prove it to be in reality a variety of wax. The coloring matter appears to be distinct from the waxy matter with which it is associated, as the greater number of re-agents act on the one without in any way affecting the other.

This substance varies in color according to the degree of maturity and perfection to which the plant, whence it is derived, has arrived; thus we see it varying from a deep green, through the several shades, until it ter-

minates in a yellow color. The coloring principle would seem to be due to the presence and action of ammonia in combination with manganese or iron.

Those coloring matters commonly called extractive matters, are generally nothing else than more or less complicated mixtures of various modifications, as the green coloring matter with some substance, either fatty or albuminous.\*

Heat has the effect of keeping these matter dispersed through the liquor; but lime-water tends to unite and harden them, so that a large portion of them is taken off with the scum.

Alumina combines with coloring matter, and forms a precipitate.

*Gum*, as existing in expressed cane-juice, is in the form of mucilage, and results from the presence of the glutinous and woody textures with which it is intermixed; thus, in consequence of the crushing and complete breaking down which the canes undergo in passing through the mill, a portion of the gluten and of the debris of the woody textures, are mechanically incorporated with the gummy matter, altogether forming a mucilaginous mixture. Alcohol, acids, and alkalis coagulate gummy matter; and sulphuric acid has the property of converting it into sugar.

*Saline matters*, present in cane-juice, depend very much on the soil on which the canes are grown; as, for instance, in the low alluvial soils of Demerara, Louisiana, the Sonderbunds (below Calcutta), and Province Wellesley, canes often imbibe so much saline matter from the soil, that the sugar made from them may be said to be in a constant state of deliquescence.

The analysis of the juice of canes grown in Louisiana shows the quantities in which they may be contained; but in the Sonderbunds, near Calcutta, and the Province Wellesley, the juice is often even much more affected.

The cultivation of the cane had to be entirely relinquished in the former of the two places on this account; and the sugar sent home from the latter has in many instances been so extremely deliquescent as to occasion very extensive loss.

Soils manured with wood-ashes in excess produce the same pernicious results, from the saline matters they furnish to the cane plants. The chlorides of sodium and potassium, sulphates of potash, &c., are amongst the chief which exercise so pernicious an influence on cane-sugar.

Peligt says that one part of the chloride of sodium will combine with nearly six times its bulk of sugar, forming a deliquescent compound, which is capable of liquefying another portion of sugar, equal to itself in bulk; and from my own observation, I believe this deliquescence to continue, until the whole mass of sugar is decomposed. It is stated on authority, that such saline matters once present in cane-juice cannot be got rid of by any means; and I believe that this is so far correct in regard to actual practice on a large scale; but in the laboratory of the chemist, I do not see that so great a difficulty exists; for we know that hydrochloric and muriatic acids, and chloride of sodium, are powerfully acted on even by a very small quantity of nitrate of silver. In the case of chloride of sodium being present in any liquid, on nitrate of silver being added, inert chloride of silver is immediately precipitated.†

Dr. Ure says, "nitrate of silver is such a delicate re-agent of hydrochloric or muriatic acid, as to show by a sensible cloud the presence of one 113th-millionth part of it, or one 7th-millionth part of sea-salt in distilled water." This would lead to the supposition that (at least in the laboratory of the chemist) the more particularly pernicious (sea-salt) of the saline matters can be separated from cane-juice by the aid of nitrate of silver.

\* Raspail.

† Ib.



We can readily perceive, from the brief glance we have taken of the constituents of cane-juice, that the object of the planter should be, to separate as early, and in as effectual a manner as possible, the undesirable matters comprised under the head of woody fibre, gluten, green fecula, green wax (chlorophyle), gum, and saline substances; leaving the remaining sugar and water in as pure and simple a state as may be.

Comprised of such substances as these just enumerated, it may readily be supposed that cane-juice is one of the most fermentable compounds possible; and experience shows that in half an hour after expression an incipient vinous fermentation commences. This is often apparent in the vessels used in the West Indies, and called cold receivers; wherein the fresh juice is received as it runs from the mill, and retained, until there is room in the clarifiers to allow of its being drawn down. It often occurs that juice is so kept for a long time; but if the period extends beyond twenty or thirty minutes, the pan-man (attendant on the defecators) always uses a little lime to prevent fermentation, until it can be received in the clarifiers.

There are some planters who argue that a slight fermentation of the juice, previous to clarification, tends to promote that important operation, and that the liquor clarified under such circumstances "boils well," and produces good sugar. Others insist that the fermentation should be after the juice has been clarified, but previous to its being boiled. This latter opinion, at least, seems to have arisen out of a statement made by Dutrone, who writes, "I have twice obtained very fine sugar from juice partially clarified, which had undergone a vinous fermentation during eighteen or twenty hours." On this Porter has a paragraph, which appears to carry with it a recommendation of such a system. Dutrone simply stated a fact, which admits of ready explanation; but it is one that certainly is far from being advantageous to the planter.

If raw cane-juice be allowed to remain exposed to the air, in a short time a fermentation commences, which is of the vinous order; but in another very short time, the acetous fermentation likewise begins, and continues in conjunction with the vinous: that is to say, that the glutinous fecula or ferment contained in the juice, decomposes the sugar, converting it into alcohol, which immediately attacks the glutinous ferment, and precipitates a large portion of it; the alcohol being itself converted, by the action of so large a body of ferment, into vinegar and water. Thus the alcohol formed by the vinous fermentation, is, in the case of raw cane-juice, decomposed and changed into vinegar almost as soon as it is formed!

In the case of partially clarified cane-liquor, that is, cane-juice which has been clarified to the extent it usually is in West India boiling-houses, a longer time is requisite to bring on fermentation than in the raw juice, although it is still very quick. Now, in this partially clarified liquor, there is still a quantity of glutinous ferment that has not been separated, and this, acting on the sugar, causes a vinous fermentation, with the consequent formation of alcohol; but in this case, the alcohol formed being in excess and the ferment in comparatively small proportion, the latter is thrown down as a precipitate, and a very much longer time is necessary to bring on the acetous fermentation than in the former instance: indeed, we may almost say that this latter fermentation does not commence until the vinous fermentation has ceased.

Partially clarified cane-liquor, then, being permitted to undergo the vinous fermentation during some time, has a large portion of its glutinous fecula precipitated by the action of the alcohol on it; and thus, if carefully drawn off (leaving the precipitate behind), and immediately boiled down to concentration, no doubt the result will be "fine sugar." But it

must be borne in mind, that the alcohol which here acts as a precipitant is formed altogether at the expense of the sugar contained in the caneliquor; and, consequently, it is a course that no one should do otherwise than condemn. In regard to the fermentation of the raw juice, as noticed, no good can by any possibility result.

If it be considered desirable to keep raw cane-juice for any length of time, fermentation may be prevented by the use of sulphurous acid. On this subject, Dr. Ure says, "It is known that grape-must, feebly impregnated with sulphurous acid, by running it slowly into a cask in which a few sulphur matches have been burned, will keep without alteration for a year; and if 'must' so muted be boiled into a syrup within a week or ten days, it retains no sulphurous odor. A very slight muting would suffice for the most fermentable cane-juice," and it could be easily given by burning a sulphur match within the cistern immediately before charging it from the mill. The cane-juice should, in this case, be heated in the clarifier, so as to expel the sulphurous acid, before adding the temperlime; for otherwise a little calcareous sulphite might be introduced into the sugar. Thus the areescence so prejudicial to the saccharine granulation would be certainly prevented." The sulphurous acid (not sulphuric acid) acts directly on the glutinous ferment, and renders it inoperative: a fact the planter may find it to his benefit to avail himself of, in certain situations which uncontrollable circumstances may place him in.

Many persons imagine that a great good would result from being able to filter cane-juice previous to the application of heat, without incurring the risk of fermentation supervening: others (even scientific men) argue that such a system cannot be carried out practically on a large scale; whilst, for my own part, I cannot discover why cane-juice (being muted with sulphurous acid) should not be able to undergo filtration without being liable to fermentation. I have never tried this, but it appears to me, that if a slight muting with sulphurous acid will prevent fermentation in cold cane-juice for a long period, then that a portion of that period might be availed of to perform the filtration through bag-filters; keeping the liquor cold (as it comes from the mill) during the process. But it is well known that cane-juice so treated will very rarely crystallize as it should do when concentrated, unless some substance has been used to assist granulation; *id est*, that filtration and ordinary boiling in the evaporators are not sufficient (in one case out of ten) to produce a syrup that will crystallize as it should.

Filtration of cold cane-juice, therefore, only places it in a more favorable position for clarification; for although it may remove from the juice any substances that are suspended in it, yet it by no means frees it of those that are dissolved in it.

My belief, then, is, that filtration of cold juice is not such a highly important desideratum; as the principle of non-employment of heat cannot be carried out entirely in the process of clarification. For instance, we will take cane-juice that has been carefully filtered, and endeavor to render it into a solution of sugar and water alone, by depriving it of the gummy and glutinous matters dissolved in it. Proceeding, then, on the belief that these matters are held dissolved by some disguised acid, we treat the filtered juice with lime, in order to saturate the acid and restore to the gummy and albuminous matters their insolubility; which thereon will present themselves in the form of a flaky coagula, showing a disposition to precipitate. But is the action of lime so applied confined merely to the saturation of this free acid? No! far from it: its beneficial action extends to the expulsion of the nitrogen contained in the glutinous matter,

\* As cane-juice is not nearly so fermentable as grape-must.—Author.

and its own combination with the acid which formed the base of the ammoniacal salt.

It has been proved, by Liebig, that the juice of maple and birch trees, and beet-root contains an ammoniacal salt, which, on evaporation, or saturation by lime, gives off ammonia in considerable quantities; whilst the neutral salt is converted, by the loss of ammonia, into an acid salt, which, under the former circumstances, combines with the sugar, converting it into *glucose* or uncrystallizable syrup; and, under the latter, combines with the lime.

It has also been abundantly shown by Raspail, Liebig, and others, that gluten, or vegetable albumen, contains nitrogen in the form of an ammoniacal salt, which is decomposed, and its ammonia expelled, either by evaporation (by heat) or saturating the acid base with an alkali (lime).

The action of lime, then, on the filtered cane-juice is twofold, viz., to saturate the acid base of the ammoniacal salt contained in the gluten expelling the ammonia; and to saturate the free acid which holds the gluten, or albumen dissolved, thereby causing the coagulation and precipitation of that substance. The quantity necessary for this object might be readily determined by any careful person, as the clear filtered juice will, on the gradual addition of lime, present marked signs of a coagulation of its gluten taking place: which may the more readily be discovered by viewing a little of the juice in a wine-glass, tumbler, or decanter.

But, that the process of filtration may proceed\* without subjecting the cane-juice to the liability of fermentation, it is necessary that the juice be united with sulphurous acid; which would be one more acid that the lime would have to combine with and precipitate. On the whole, therefore, there does not appear to be any extraordinary advantages attending this process; whilst the trouble attendant on it, and the risks incurred, are sufficient to warrant its rejection.

I have merely bestowed a passing notice on the filtration of cold raw juice through bag filters, as it has been so much dwelt upon by many writers of essays: but the observations I have been led to make relative to the ammoniacal salt contained in gluten, and the free acid which holds the gluten dissolved, as well as the action of lime in both instances, strictly apply throughout to the subject of defecation.

## DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

### 1.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-'52.

FROM the returns and tables of that valuable journal, the *New-Orleans Price Current*, we extract the following relating to the commerce of the city in the year which ended the 31st of August. We shall hereafter continue the extracts in accordance with our annual custom since the commencement of the Review. The reader, by referring to the back volumes, or to the condensation of them we have published, will obtain minute particulars of the trade of New-Orleans from the earliest periods of its history.

#### SUMMARY OF HOME AND FOREIGN TRADE.

The value of products received from the interior since 1st September, 1851, is \$108,051,708, against \$106,924,083 last year. The value of the exports of American produce, for the year ending 30th June last, according to the Custom-house records, was \$76,344,569, against \$81,216,925 last year. Of this amount, \$48,076,197

\* It is tolerably certain that raw cane-juice will take twice or thrice the time to filter, thoroughly, that partially clarified cane-liquor will.

was to foreign ports, and \$28,263,327 coastwise. The value of foreign merchandise exported during the same period was only \$44,780. These figures exhibit a decrease in the total exports, as compared with last year, of \$5,273,526. In the exports to foreign countries the decrease is \$6,312,986, but there is an increase coastwise of \$1,039,460. There has been a material falling off in the operations of the branch mint, the total deposits of gold and silver, for the year ending 31st of July, 1852, being \$6,103,650, against \$9,107,722 last year. Of the gold, \$5,821,695 was from California, against \$3,152,878 from the same source last year. The coinage in the same period has been 675,500 pieces of gold, value \$6,370,000, and 1,488,000 pieces of silver, value \$235,600—total, 2,163,500 pieces, value \$6,605,600. Last year the total coinage was \$10,044,500.

## COTTON.

Table showing the quotations for low middling to good middling cotton on the first of each month, with the rates of freight to Liverpool, and sterling bills, at same date.

1851.	Low mid. to good mid.	Sterling per ct. pris.	Freights per lb.
September.....	7½ a 8½	10 all	7 a —
October.....	7½ a 8½	10 all	7-10a —
November.....	6½ a 7½	9 a 10	7 a —
December.....	6½ a 7½	9 a 10	7 a 7-16
January, 1852.....	6½ a 7½	8½ a 9½	13-32a 7-16
February.....	7 a 7½	8½ a 9	13-32
March.....	7½ a 8½	8½ a 9½	15-16a 7
April.....	7 a 7½	8½ a 9½	9-16a —
May.....	7½ a 8½	8 a 8½	9-16a —
June.....	8 a 10	9 a 10	5-16
July.....	8 a 11	9½ a 10	5-16a —
August.....	8½ a 11	9½ a 10	5-16a —

Table showing the highest and lowest point in each month, for low middling to middling cotton.

	Highest.	Lowest.
September.....	8½ a 9	7½ a 8½
October.....	7½ a 8	6½ a 7
November.....	7½ a 7½	6½ a 7
December.....	7½ a 7½	6½ a 7½
January, 1852.....	7½ a 7½	6½ a 7½
February.....	7½ a 7½	7 a 7½
March.....	7½ a 8	7 a 7½
April.....	7½ a 7½	6½ a 7½
May.....	8 a 9½	7 a 8
June.....	8 a 9½	8 a 9
July.....	8 a 9½	8 a 9
August.....	8½ a 9½	8½ a 9½

*Mixed Cotton.*—We have, on former occasions, called the attention of planters to the existence of an evil which loudly calls for remedy. We refer to the culpable negligence of many whose duty it is to attend to the packing of cotton, as shown by the frequent discovery of *mixed bales*, viz.: bales that are found to contain two, three or more qualities and colors. This negligence often leads to vexatious reclamations, and sometimes to expensive lawsuits, as it generally happens that the discovery is not made until the cotton has reached the hands of the manufacturer, at a distant market; then, if any portion of the bale is found to be inferior in quality to the sample by which it was purchased, the *whole bale* is reduced to the value of the *lowest grade found*, and the difference reclaimed. Nor is this all, for reclamations are sometimes insisted on even when the purchase has been made by a sample of the *lowest grade*, on the ground that mixed bales are unmerchantable. Thus the planter not only loses the difference in price between the lower and higher qualities, which careless packing has mingled in the same bale, but is called upon to *pay that difference again*. And besides all this, when the irregular packing is once discovered, as it necessarily must be, somewhere and at some time, it throws discredit upon the planter's crops generally, and thus operates to his disadvantage. It sometimes happens that the discovery is made here, before sale, by drawing samples from different parts of a bale. When this is the case, the factor can seldom obtain more than the market value of the lowest sample. The evil which we have here depicted, and which is not only attended with direct loss to the planter, but is also productive of many vexatious controversies, is venial in its character, and only reprehensible for the confusion it introduces into a most important branch of trade, and one that can only be conducted with facility and economy upon the basis of good faith in the honesty and integrity of the planter. These virtues being accorded to him, he owes it to himself, to his factor and to his purchaser, to exercise more care and vigilance over those who have his interests in charge.

The following tables, which have explanatory captions, we have compiled from our records, under the impression that they would probably be found interesting to parties engaged in the cotton trade:



Date of receipt of first bale	Season	Receipts at New- Orleans	Average price per bale	Average price cents, per lb	Total value
1842, July 25.....	1841, '42.....	740,155.....	\$33 00.....	6½.....	\$24,425,115
1843, Aug. 17.....	1842, '43.....	1,089,642.....	27 00.....	10.....	29,420,334
1844, July 23.....	1843, '44.....	910,854.....	32 00.....	6½.....	29,147,398
1845, July 30.....	1844, '45.....	979,238.....	24 00.....	6½.....	23,501,712
1846, Aug. 7.....	1845, '46.....	1,053,633.....	23 00.....	11.....	33,716,256
1847, Aug. 9.....	1846, '47.....	740,669.....	44 00.....	11.....	32,589,436
1848, Aug. 5.....	1847, '48.....	1,313,805.....	29 00.....	8.....	35,200,345
1849, Aug. 7.....	1848, '49.....	1,142,382.....	27 00.....	—.....	30,844,314
1850, Aug. 11.....	1849, '50.....	837,723.....	30 00.....	—.....	41,886,150
1851, July 25.....	1850, '51.....	905,036.....	49 00.....	—.....	48,756,764
	1851, '52.....	1,429,183.....	34 00.....	—.....	48,509,222

The total receipts at this port since 1st September last, from all sources, are 1,429,183 bales. This amount includes 34,959 bales from Mobile and Florida, and from Texas, by sea; and this being deducted, our receipts proper, including 21,760 bales received direct from Montgomery, etc., are shown to be 1,394,224 bales, being an increase of 444,004 bales over last year, and of 205,491 bales over any previous year. The total exports since 1st of September are 1,435,815 bales, of which 772,242 bales were shipped to Great Britain, 196,254 to France, 210,607 to the north and south of Europe, Mexico, etc., and 256,712 to United States ports. On a comparison of the exports with those of last year there would appear to be an increase of 189,369 bales to Great Britain, 65,892 to France, 78,701 to the north and south of Europe, Mexico, etc., and of 103,895 bales to United States ports. The total receipts at all the Atlantic and Gulf ports, up to the latest dates received—as shown by our general cotton table—are 3,021,519 bales, but the actual crop when made up by the New-York Shipping List, will fall somewhat short of this amount, as it includes some 25,000 bales of last year's stock, which was on hand at Augusta and Hamburg, (Georgia,) and was counted in the last crop.

Thus the largest crop ever produced in the United States has been disposed of, and with results more generally satisfactory than we remember to have witnessed in any previous year. The circumstances which have tended to these results present some remarkable peculiarities, and we propose to touch briefly upon a few of the most prominent, among which we may mention the policy of the factors generally of meeting the markets freely, and thus guarding against any unwieldy accumulation of stock, which would tend to break down the market. In this course they have been aided by circumstances which to many were a momentary evil of magnitude, though they contributed favorably in the general result. We allude to the remarkable drought, which, while constituting a season of the most favorable character for picking, at the same time kept nearly all the tributary streams too low for the purposes of navigation; and thus the great bulk of the supplies which come from the banks of the main river had been received and disposed of before the tributaries were in a condition to contribute to the stock. We would also refer to the great abundance and cheapness of money in Europe, which brought speculators into competition with spinners, and to the remarkable increase in the consumption. This is most prominently shown by the half-yearly returns from Great Britain, by which it appears that the quantity taken for consumption, for the six months ending on 1st July, was 1,031,763 bales, against 776,120 bales for the corresponding six months of the previous year. This made a weekly average of 39,683 bales, or an increase of about 5,000 bales per week over any previous period. Besides this there is an increase in our exports to foreign countries, other than Great Britain, of 210,000 bales, while the quantity taken for home consumption probably exceeds that of last year by about 200,000 bales.

We append a table which exhibits the import, delivery, stock, etc., in the whole of Great Britain, for the first six months of the current year, ending on the 30th June last, and a comparison with the same period in 1851:

	1852.	1851.
Stock 1st January.....	bales.. 494,600.....	521,120
Import six months.....	1,401,363.....	1,156,500
	1,895,963.....	1,677,620
Export six months.....	147,000.....	95,300
Consumption.....	1,031,763.....	776,120
	717,200.....	806,200
Stock 30th June.....	39,683.....	29,851
Weekly average taken for consumption..	372,410.....	114,210
Taken on speculation.....		

With respect to the market prospects for the coming crop, we think they may be said to be decidedly encouraging; for the experience of the past season would seem to give assurance of a ready demand for even a large crop, and at prices which will be likely to afford a fair return to the producer. As has already been shown, moderate prices, abundant pecuniary means, and other favorable circumstances, have greatly stimulated consumption within the past year, and there is nothing now apparent to discourage the hope that, with the same wise policy of promptly meeting an active demand, a crop even larger than the last may be disposed of, with equally satisfactory results.

## 2.—TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-'52.

The crop of 1851 proved, according to the very valuable statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, to be 236,547 hhds., estimated at 257,138,000 lbs. Of this quantity there were 203,922 hhds. brown sugar made by the old process, and 32,625 hhds. refined, clarified, etc., including cistern bottoms. This was the produce of 1,474 plantations, of which 914 are worked by steam, and 560 by horse-power, and the result shows only a moderate yield, as the cane generally was not well matured, besides which the loss by crevasses is estimated to have been about 10,000 hhds. The crop also presented a low average in quality, as besides the immature condition of the cane, it was somewhat injured by frost, and we noticed several sales on the Levee as low as 1½, 1¼ and 2 cents per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and the lowest points in each month for fair sugar on the Levee, will indicate the general course of the market:

	Highest.	Lowest.
September..... cents per lb.	6½ a 6¼	5½ a 6¼
October.....	5½ a 6¼	4½ a 5
November.....	4½ a 5½	4½ a 4½
December.....	4 a 4½	3½ a 4
January.....	3½ a 4½	3½ a 4
February.....	3½ a 4½	3½ a 4
March.....	4 a 4½	3½ a 4½
April.....	4½ a 4½	3½ a 4½
May.....	5 a 5½	4½ a 4½
June.....	5½ a 5½	5 a 5½
July.....	5½ a 5½	5 a 5½
August.....	5½ a 5½	5 a 5½

These figures present a considerably lower average than was obtained for the crop of last year, the increase in quantity and the deficiency in quality having both tended to this result. The reported sales on plantation have been at the following rates, for crops—3½, 3¼, 3½, 4, 4½, 4½, 4½ and 5 cents per lb., the lowest being in December, for a mixed crop, and the highest in April, for a prime one. The prevailing rates of the season have been 4 a 4½ cents per lb. for prime crops.

The annexed table gives the crop of each year for the last twenty-two years, and a reference to it will show great fluctuations in the product:

Crop of 1851.....	236,547 hhds.	Crop of 1840.....	87,000 hhds.
" 1850.....	211,203 "	" 1839.....	115,000 "
" 1849.....	247,923 "	" 1838.....	70,000 "
" 1848.....	220,000 "	" 1837.....	65,000 "
" 1847.....	240,000 "	" 1836.....	70,000 "
" 1846.....	140,000 "	" 1835.....	30,000 "
" 1845.....	186,650 "	" 1834.....	100,000 "
" 1844.....	200,000 "	" 1833.....	75,000 "
" 1843.....	100,000 "	" 1832.....	70,000 "
" 1842.....	140,000 "	" 1829.....	48,000 "
" 1841.....	90,000 "	" 1828.....	88,000 "

The crop of Texas is said to give highly, favorable promise, and the yield is expected to be more than double that of last year.

In an elaborate statement, made up at New-York, the consumption of the United States, for the year 1851, is put down at 321,736 tons. This is exclusive of about 40,000 lbs. of maple sugar, and of a large quantity of sugar made from foreign molasses, which we have no data for estimating.

**EXPORTS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO, FROM NEW-ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING  
31ST AUGUST, 1852.**

Whither exported.	Cotton Bales.	Tobacco Hhds.	Whither exported.	Cotton Bales.	Tobacco Hhds.
Liverpool.....	751,172..	7,844	Spain and Gibraltar.....	47,645..	7,662
London.....	—	5,197	Havana, Mexico, &c.....	11,919..	—
Glasgow and Greenock..	11,700..	—	Genoa, Trieste, &c.....	75,093..	11,134
Cowes, Falmouth, &c....	7,211..	982	China.....	—	—
Cork, Belfast, &c.....	2,159..	—	Other foreign ports.....	15,046..	3,533
Havre.....	183,054..	9,056	New-York.....	101,938..	13,347
Bordeaux.....	1,554..	1,916	Boston.....	128,629..	1,941
Marseilles.....	4,308..	2,976	Providence, R. I.....	4,561..	—
Nantz, Cette and Rouen..	7,338..	—	Philadelphia.....	15,594..	1,296
Amsterdam.....	259..	1,157	Baltimore.....	4,745..	385
Rotterdam and Ghent....	1,507..	222	Portsmouth.....	—	—
Bremen.....	10,248..	15,515	Other coastwise ports....	45..	230
Antwerp, &c.....	24,562..	7,618	Western States.....	1,200..	—
Hamburg.....	17,694..	475			
Gottenburg.....	6,634..	1,229	Total.....	1,435,815..	93,715

**RECAPITULATION.**

Great Britain.....	772,242..	14,023	Coastwise.....	256,712..	17,199
France.....	196,254..	13,948			
North of Europe.....	73,950..	26,814	Total.....	1,435,815..	93,715
South of Europe & China	134,657..	21,731			

**EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKY, AND CORN, FROM  
1ST SEPT., 1851, TO 31ST AUGUST, 1852.**

Ports	Flour, Barrels	Pork, Barrels	Bacon, Hhds	Lard, Kgs	Beef, Barrels	Lead, Pigs	Whisky Barrels	Corn, Sacks
New-York.....	94,638..	57,356..	12,685..	256,738..	9,295..	149,781..	6,553..	133,488
Boston.....	61,124..	62,702..	5,431..	208,613..	12,285..	73,895..	1,845..	148,524
Philadelphia.....	24..	4,849..	2,772..	20,686..	200..	31,118..	1,888..	13,905
Baltimore.....	—	14,164..	2,334..	32,318..	—	—	2,538..	—
Other catw. pts.....	179,911..	25,846..	26,173..	51,664..	752..	1,645..	68,311..	336,719
Great Britain.....	138,569..	1,263..	—	61,923..	15,109..	—	—	192,288
Cuba.....	6,631..	946..	812..	158,447..	15..	—	—	37,466
Other for. ports.....	63,764..	5,622..	96..	2,154..	551..	500..	21..	12,384
Total.....	544,711..	172,748..	50,303..	792,543..	35,207..	256,939..	82,156..	874,774

**IMPORTS INTO NEW-ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR, FROM THE 1ST SEPTEMBER TO  
THE 31ST AUGUST, 1851-52.**

Apples.....	bbles	20356	Corn, shelled, sacks	1397132	Oil, linseed.....	bbles	758
Bacon, asst. casks, &c.....	46734		Cheese.....	boxes 72441	Oil, castor.....	bbles	4291
Bacon, bbls. & boxes	3626		Candles.....	boxes 53936	Oil, lard.....	bbles	14114
Bacon, Hams,....	hhds 38488		Cider,.....	bbles 300	Pickles, kegs & bbls		381
Bacon in bulk,....	lbs 281280		Coal, western,....	hhds 850000	Potatoes.....	bbles	228095
Bagging.....	pieces 60044		Dried Peaches, bbls	336	Port,....	tcs. & bbls	276606
Bale Rope,....	coils 90272		Dried Apples,....	bbles 468	Pork.....	boxes	303
Beans.....	bbles 6598		Flaxseed,....	tierces 519	Pork.....	hhds	2478
Butter,.....	kegs 44786		Flour,.....	bbles 927212	Pork, in bulk.....	lbs	8800000
Butter,.....	bbles 1778		Furs, hhds,....	boxes, bbls.....	Porter and ale.....	bbles	406
Beeswax,.....	bbles 171		Feathers,.....	bags 2065	Packing yarn.....	reels	2093
Beef, bbls. & tierces	52850		Hemp,.....	bales 17149	Skins, deer.....	packs	998
Beef, dried.....	lbs 26100		Hides,.....	123687	Shot.....	kegs	2704
Buffalo Robes, packs	1300		Hay,.....	bales 53434	Sugar.....	hhds	141046
La. & Mi. bales	967679		Iron, Pig,.....	tons 62	Sugar.....	bbles	11213
Lake,.....	bales 15809		Lard,.....	hhds 57	Soap.....	boxes	5308
N. Ala. & Ten, bales.....	304153		Lard,....	tcs. & bbls 125496	Shingles.....		40000
Arkansas, bales	85430		Lard.....	kegs 157689	Staves.....		7319000
Mongomery, &c.	21760		Lime.....	western bbls 42305	Tallow.....	bbles	1307
Mobile,....	bales 15606		Lead.....	pigs 267564	Tobacco, lead,....	hhds	89675
Florida,....	do 4807		Lead, bar,....	kegs 1138	Tobacco, chew,....	kegs	4779
Texas,....	do 14546		Lead, white,....	kegs 1368	Tobacco.....	bales	162
Corn Meal,....	bbles 2514		Molasses.....	bbles 233923	Twine.....	bundles	2341
Corn in ears,....	bbles 163008		Oats.....	bbls and sks 463273	Whisky.....	bbles	146332
			Onions.....	bbles 17184	Window glass,....	bxs	19251
					Wheat, bbls. & sacks		64918

## VALUE OF PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR.

A Table, showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior, during the year ending 31st August, 1852, with their estimated average and total value.

Articles.	Amount	Average	Value Dollars	Articles.	Amount	Average	Value Dollars
Apples.....bbls.	20356	\$3 00	61068	Lead, bar....kegs & boxes.....	1138	20 00	22760
Bacon, ass'd, hdds. & casks.....	46734	75 00	3505050	Lead, white....kegs	1368	3 00	4104
Bacon, assorted, bxs	3626	35 00	126910	Molasses (estimated crop).....gals. [1	8300000	22	4026000
Bacon, hams, hdds. and tcs.....	38488	70 00	2694160	Oats.....bbls. & sacks	463273	75	347454
Bacon, in bulk....pds.	281280	8	22502	Onions.....bbls.	17184	2 00	34368
Bagging.....pieces	60044	13 00	780572	Oil, linseed....bbls.	758	26 00	19708
Bale rope....coils	90272	7 50	677040	Oil, castor....bbls.	4291	28 00	120148
Beans.....bbls.	6598	10 00	65980	Oil, lard.....bbls.	14114	28 00	395192
Butter.....kegs and firkins.....	44786	8 00	358288	Potatoes.....bbls.	228095	2 00	456190
Butter.....bbls.	1778	30 00	53340	Pork.....tcs. & bbls.	276606	16 00	4425696
Beeswax.....bbls.	171	45 00	7695	Pork.....boxes	303	35 00	10605
Beef.....bbls.	41227	12 00	494724	Pork.....hdds.	2478	80 00	198240
Beef.....tierces	11523	15 00	172845	Pork, in bulk....pds.	8800000	7	616000
Beef, dried.....pounds	26100	8	2088	Porter & ale....bbls.	406	10 00	4060
Buffalo robes....packs	1300	75 00	97500	Packing yarn....reels	2093	7 00	14651
Cotton.....bales	1429183	34 00	48592222	Skins, deer....packs	998	25 00	24950
Corn meal.....bbls.	2514	3 00	7542	Skins, bear....packs	16	15 00	240
Corn, in ear....bbls.	163008	70 00	114105	Shot.....kegs	2704	25 00	67600
Corn, shelled....sacks	1397133	1 20	1676558	Soap.....boxes	5308	3 00	15924
Cheese.....boxes	72441	3 50	253543	Staves.....M.	7319	38 00	278192
Candles.....boxes	53936	6 00	323616	Sugar (estimated cp.) hdds. ....	236547	50 00	11827350
Cider.....bbls.	300	3 00	900	Spanish moss....bales	4372	8 00	34976
Coal, western....bbls.	850000	50 00	425000	Tallow.....bbls.	1307	20 00	26140
Dried apples and peaches.....	804	5 00	4020	Tobacco, leaf....hdds.	75816	75 00	5686200
Feathers.....bags	2065	35 00	72275	Tobacco, strips, hdds.	11741	125	1467625
Flaxseed.....tierces	519	10 00	5190	Tobacco, stems, hdds.	2118	20 00	42360
Flour.....bbls.	927212	4 00	3708848	Tobacco, chew'g kgs. and boxes.....	4779	20 00	95580
Furs, hdds., bundles and boxes.....	2136	—	1000000	Twine, buns, & boxes	2341	8 00	18728
Hemp.....bales	17149	15 00	257235	Vinegar.....bbls.	92	6 00	552
Hides.....	13687	2 00	247374	Whisky.....bbls.	146352	7 50	1097640
Hay.....bales	5434	3 00	160302	Window glass....bxs.	19251	2 50	48127
Iron, pig.....tons	62	30 00	1860	Wheat, bbls. & scks	64918	2 00	129836
Lard.....bbls. & tcs.	125496	25 00	3137400	Other various articles estimated at.	—	—	5500000
Lard.....kegs	157689	5 00	788445	Total value—dollars	—	—	08051708
Leather.....bundles	7572	25 00	189300	Total in 1850-51,	—	—	106924083
Lime, western....bbls.	42305	1 25	52881	Total in 1849-50,	—	—	96897873
Lead.....pigs	267564	3 20	856204	Total in 1848-49,	—	—	81989692

## EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND MOLASSES, FROM NEW-ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31ST AUGUST, 1852.

	SUGAR.	MOLASSES.
Whither exported.	Hhds.	Hhds.
New-York.....	18,225..	134..130..26,703
Philadelphia.....	6,489..	946.. 93.. 6,384
Charleston, S.C.	3,524..	1,685.. — 9,519
Savannah.....	729..	99.. — 2,873
Providence and Bristol, R. I. ....	—	— 319.. 143
Boston.....	611..	21.. — 1,409
Baltimore.....	6,400..	38.. — 11,081
Norfolk, Va. ....	—	— — —
Richmond ..	4,585..	338.. 41.. 5,323
Petersburg ..	—	— — —
Alexandria, D.C.	1,156..	— — — 2,127
Mobile.....	5,327..	— — — 16,187
Apal. & Pensac.	1,399..	416.. — 7,207
Other ports.....	2,348..	2,857.. — 5,151
Total.....	50,793..	6,534.. 583.. 94,107

## MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF SHIPS, BARKS, BRIGS, SCHOONERS AND STEAMBOATS, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1851, TO AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Months	Ships	Barks	Brigs	Scho.	St. Shps	Total	St. Barks
Sept. 31..	21..	12..	43..	14..	121..	140	
Oct. 74..	32..	26..	51..	18..	201..	186	
Nov. 107..	26..	19..	44..	14..	210..	194	
Dec. 105..	66..	41..	77..	14..	303..	293	
Jan. 69..	39..	29..	55..	13..	205..	297	
Feb. 95..	33..	30..	70..	18..	246..	285	
Mch. 74..	29..	30..	64..	20..	217..	365	
April 59..	27..	24..	76..	24..	210..	290	
May 92..	32..	26..	60..	17..	227..	242	
June 59..	30..	21..	55..	24..	189..	238	
July 20..	21..	17..	41..	19..	118..	127	
Aug. 22..	15..	12..	37..	18..	104..	121	
Tot.	807.	371.	287..	673.	213..	2,351.	2,778



3.—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

*Statement of Domestic Produce and Manufactures shipped from the port of St. Louis destined to New-Orleans, Natchez, Vicksburg, Memphis, Nashville, Mills' Point, Helena, and other places on the interior waters of the United States, in the year ending 30th June, 1851 :*

Flour.....	648,580	bbls.	Lead.....	472,438	pigs.
".....	2,156	sacks.	".....	78,600	lb. brs.
Wheat.....	112,600	"	Tobacco.....	9,210	hhds.
Oats.....	415,624	"	".....	5,011	bxs.
Barley.....	17,487	"	Refined Sugars.....	21,892	bbls.
Pork.....	108	hhds.	Sugars.....	21,405	hhds.
".....	5,012	tcs.	".....	11,548	bbls.
".....	122,948	bbls.	Molasses.....	40,510	"
Lard.....	14,290	tcs.	Whisky.....	22,916	"
".....	47,450	bbls.	Hides.....	38,490	"
".....	19,730	kgs.	Nails.....	38,776	kgs.
".....	419	tons.	Glass.....	6,418	bxs.
Beef.....	5,111	tcs.	Salt.....	16,753	bbls.
".....	4,538	bbls.	Cotton Yarn.....	6,180	bgs.
Bacon.....	24,432	csks.	Wrought Iron Manufac-		
".....	6,986	tcs.	tures.....	15,345	tons.
Hemp.....	57,160	bales.	Castings.....	30,840	"

4.—IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW-YORK—1851 & 1852.

	Jan. 1 to Aug. 31. 1852.	1851.		Jan. 1 to Aug. 31. 1852.	1851.
Brandy, $\frac{1}{2}$ pipes.....	10,843..	10,716	Pepper, bags.....	23,414..	2,884
" $\frac{1}{2}$ casks & bbls..	25,449..	24,660	Pimento, bags.....	10,950..	6,027
Coal, tons.....	49,451..	37,745	Rags, bales.....	26,869..	24,689
Cochineal, ceroons....	1,107..	1,521	Raisins, casks.....	1,894..	8,938
Cocoa, bags.....	4,725..	7,719	" bxs & frails..	105,711..	148,738
Coffee, pkgs.....	445,989..	392,210	" drums.....	—	960
Cotton, bales.....	397,856..	313,890	Rice, tierces.....	28,910..	28,859
Duck, bales.....	300..	570	Rum, puncheons.....	1,183..	996
" pieces.....	11,913..	6,953	Salt, bushels.....	1,315,407..	1,246,579
Earthenware, pkgs....	25,604..	28,119	Saltpetre, bags.....	28,021..	13,244
Figs, drums, &c.....	14,314..	56,024	Sugar, hhds.....	157,886..	133,082
Gin, pipes.....	3,162..	3,255	" tierces.....	3,380..	1,448
Hemp, bales.....	47,063..	42,563	" bbls.....	34,627..	31,379
" tons.....	268..	774	" boxes.....	163,157..	168,038
Hides, bales.....	1,069..	919	" bags.....	59,890..	141,277
" No.....	773,104..	866,333	Spelter, plates.....	54,493..	82,618
Iron—bar, tons.....	26,096..	37,952	Tin—Banca, &c., slabs	25,393..	13,266
pig, tons.....	46,390..	38,598	Plates, boxes..	226,152..	230,362
sheet, &c., bbls..	372,910..	479,429	Tobacco, hhds.....	10,603..	9,454
Indigo, cases.....	1,258..	1,614	" bales & ceroons	24,550..	15,434
ceroons.....	881..	656	Wines, butts and pipes	1,064..	963
Lead, pigs.....	268,743..	328,264	" hhds & $\frac{1}{2}$ pipes	13,631..	11,767
Molasses, hhds.....	63,264..	76,263	" $\frac{1}{2}$ casks.....	28,884..	37,323
" tierces.....	4,916..	5,086	" bbls.....	6,607..	7,118
" bbls.....	31,940..	36,633	" boxes.....	44,172..	53,760
Olive Oil, casks.....	747..	1,336	Wool, bales.....	11,757..	37,153
" boxes & bskts	36,820..	19,997			

5.—COMMERCE OF VIRGINIA.

It may attract the attention of the people to the depressed condition of the commercial affairs of Virginia, by referring to the official reports in the matter. It is seen that the amount of foreign imports of the United States, for the last year, was one hundred and forty-seven millions eight hundred and fifty-seven thousand four hundred and thirty-nine dollars. Allowing about eight and a half dollars to each individual, according to the last census, the quota, therefore, for this state, should have been \$10,538,376, whilst her actual imports were only \$241,935. During the same period there came into the ports of the United States 20,200 vessels—of which 146 only entered Virginia—whilst her share should have been 1467. Let us imagine the vast difference in the thrift and prosperity of our seaport towns, and of the whole state, that will ensue, when the naviga-

tion and commerce that properly belongs to us, is sustained—when we see fifteen hundred vessels from foreign ports annually arriving at our towns, is it not, therefore, highly important that the people should be awakened as to their true interests, and urged to take incipient steps to renovate their condition?

#### 6.—THE FISHERIES.

The following table exhibits the United States tonnage employed in the fisheries, and the import and export of fish into and from the United States, for a series of years. The table shows the importance of the interests at stake upon the decision of the fish controversy. It is the mackerel fishermen who are more particularly interested in the recent policy of the British Government:

	Tonnage.			Imports.		Exports.	
	Cod tons.	Mackerel tons.	Total tons.	Dried cwt.	Pickled lbs.	Dried cwt.	Pickled lbs.
1840	60,035	28,629	104,304	4,061	25,493	211,425	42,274
1841	66,551	11,391	77,873	2,422	18,012	252,190	36,508
1842	54,804	16,096	70,900	1,265	14,678	256,083	40,846
1843	61,224	11,775	73,000	2,640	12,334	174,220	20,198
1844	85,224	16,170	101,395	360	43,542	271,610	43,500
1845	69,825	21,413	91,238	1,297	30,506	211,425	42,374
1846	72,516	36,453	108,978	865	31,409	277,401	56,331
1847	70,177	31,451	101,628	8,274	91,113	258,870	30,976
1848	82,651	43,558	126,210	51,826	122,594	206,549	22,445
1849	73,882	42,992	116,874	22,520	138,508	197,457	25,570
1850	93,886	38,112	151,918	25,115	108,380	168,600	19,330
1851	95,615	50,539	146,154	14,765	145,368	151,088	21,314

#### 7.—THE MARINE OF THE WORLD.

##### NUMBER OF VESSELS AND TONNAGE BELONGING TO THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES—1852.

Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.	Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.
Great Britain	4,144,115	34,090	Netherlands	396,924	1,793
France	595,344	13,679	Austria	178,000	—
Norway	337,058	3,064	Denmark and Duchies	168,978	4,710
Russia	—	750	Papal States	133,402	1,530
Greece	150,000	4,000	Canada	68,553	683
Naples	100,000	—	Ceylon	30,828	609
Hamburg	82,053	286	Mauritius	10,020	125
Belgium	22,770	161	Tuscany	27,598	773
Cape of Good Hope	4,080	34	Prussia	133,658	977
United States	3,535,451	—			
Total				10,118,841	67,184

##### THE SHIPPING AND TONNAGE ENTERED INWARDS AND CLEARED OUTWARDS FROM THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES:

Countries	Entered		Cleared	
	Tons	Vessels	Tons	Vessels
Great Britain	6,113,696	31,249	5,906,978	29,011
France	1,887,291	15,263	1,430,085	13,868
Netherlands	1,029,771	6,959	1,136,864	7,017
Hamburg	730,596	4,094	729,186	4,114
Canada	628,399	1,699	626,407	1,732
Spain	579,475	5,806	470,973	4,622
India	406,479	868	522,056	1,128
Prussia	813,096	4,690	823,456	4,635
United States	4,328,639	21,643	4,361,002	21,805
Russia	1,323,080	6,401	1,177,994	6,197
Norway	772,885	7,969	806,766	8,160
Sardinia	700,000	6,000	700,000	6,000
Austria	547,228	—	562,722	—
Sweden	540,902	6,707	562,394	6,347
Belgium	356,367	2,424	349,638	2,368
Egypt	409,136	2,019	432,696	1,707
China	169,155	531	163,717	528
Other Countries	1,927,505	15,915	1,965,867	17,163
Total	33,333,620	139,638	22,738,801	136,402

## STATEMENT OF COMMERCE, &amp;C.

515

## 8.—STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE U. S., FROM JULY 1, 1850, TO JUNE 30, 1851.\*

States.	Domestic Produce Exported.			Foreign Produce Exported.		Total of Foreign Produce Exported.	Imports in American Vessels.	Imports in Foreign Vessels.	Total Imports.	Total American and Foreign Tonnage entered.	Total American and Foreign Tonnage cleared.
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.						
Maine.....	\$1,951,391.	296,086.	\$1,517,487.	296,959.	40,992.	\$1,551,438.	9068,061.	2908,529.	\$1,176,590.	147,184.	195,741.
New Hampshire.	1,287.	3,662.	4,949.	—	—	4,949.	44,622.	13,346.	58,098.	7,397.	7,693.
Vermont.....	761,712.	—	761,712.	304.	—	762,016.	691,268.	—	691,268.	126,013.	121,848.
Massachusetts.	7,707,995.	2,149,543.	9,857,537.	1,931,664.	563,481.	19,352,682.	23,117,834.	9,597,493.	32,715,327.	661,574.	626,800.
Rhode Island.	292,587.	837.	293,424.	14,373.	—	307,797.	295,909.	15,421.	310,630.	22,892.	23,685.
Connecticut.	419,924.	13,970.	433,894.	184.	—	434,078.	320,858.	22,136.	342,994.	34,712.	30,661.
New York.....	51,698,245.	16,406,297.	68,104,542.	11,403,676.	6,498,801.	66,007,019.	106,368,635.	34,977,903.	141,546,538.	2,746,139.	2,467,132.
New Jersey.	4,138,201.	139.	4,138,340.	—	—	4,138,340.	1,111.	—	1,111.	1,188.	928.
Pennsylvania.	963,708.	5,101,969.	6,065,677.	228,830.	95,237.	6,356,036.	11,541,912.	2,627,549.	14,169,461.	159,636.	140,174.
Delaware.....	3,732,315.	1,684,483.	5,416,798.	198,137.	20,851.	5,635,786.	5,662,066.	988,579.	6,650,645.	113,027.	103,789.
Maryland.....	72,560.	—	72,560.	—	—	72,560.	80,527.	286.	80,813.	1,677.	1,859.
D. of Columbia.	1,550,738.	1,536,706.	3,087,444.	—	—	3,087,444.	227,339.	325,594.	552,933.	34,563.	65,347.
Virginia.....	226,482.	190,266.	426,748.	4,347.	—	431,095.	125,978.	80,953.	206,931.	30,318.	43,288.
North Carolina.	8,354,698.	6,961,880.	15,316,578.	—	—	15,316,578.	1,466,915.	434,397.	2,081,312.	93,064.	140,508.
South Carolina.	5,224,518.	3,934,361.	9,158,879.	360.	—	9,159,939.	404,477.	317,070.	721,547.	47,096.	69,709.
Georgia.....	2,519,319.	1,420,891.	3,939,910.	—	—	3,940,172.	38,875.	56,122.	94,997.	85,225.	29,303.
Florida.....	11,641,695.	6,887,129.	18,528,824.	—	—	18,528,824.	63,736.	369,710.	413,446.	55,684.	121,365.
Alabama.....	38,022,609.	15,945,404.	53,968,013.	328,265.	57,075.	54,413,963.	10,134,465.	2,393,995.	12,528,460.	328,932.	421,566.
Louisiana.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mississippi.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Missouri.....	187,158.	907,967.	395,125.	—	—	395,125.	586,460.	99,871.	686,331.	51,837.	30,886.
Ohio.....	92,816.	90,632.	183,448.	—	—	183,448.	213,576.	—	213,576.	—	—
Kentucky.....	98,249.	16,887.	115,136.	—	—	115,136.	182,146.	—	182,146.	—	—
Michigan.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Illinois.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Texas.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
California.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....	137,934,539.	56,755,170.	196,689,718.	14,205,617.	7,176,143.	218,071,478.	163,650,543.	52,574,389.	216,224,932.	4,993,440.	5,130,054.

NOTE.—No returns of imports or exports have been received from San Francisco in California for 1851.

\* From the latest returns yet published by Congress.

## 9.—CANADIAN COMMERCE.

The value of merchandise imported from each country in each of the past three years, was as annexed:

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Great Britain .....	£1,669,002	£2,407,980	£3,012,033
N. A. Colonies .....	48,913	96,404	109,242
West Indies .....	3	1,112	3,400
United States .....	2,242,853	1,648,715	2,091,441
Other foreign countries .....	41,824	91,393	142,574

From this table it appears that, taking the three years inclusively, the importations have increased from Great Britain at the rate of about 70½ per cent.; from the United States at the rate of about 60½ per cent.; and from the North American colonies at the rate of about 123 per cent.

The following are the numbers and tonnage of foreign vessels entered at Quebec and Montreal in 1851:—

	No.	Tons.
United States .....	35	20,002
Norway .....	47	17,640
Prussia .....	21	7,667
Russia .....	8	3,668
Sweden .....	3	989
Mecklenburg .....	2	478
Hanover .....	1	212
Totals .....	117	50,716

There were built during the year in Canada 4 steamers of 450 tons, and 77 sailing vessels of 42,649 tons.

## AGRICULTURE.

## 1.—THE COTTON CROP OF 1851-'52.

NEW-ORLEANS.—Exported foreign, 1,170,103; coastwise, 256,712; stock 1st Sept., 1852, 9,738—1,445,573 bales. In this is included, 15,390 stock 1st September, 1851; 37,366 received from Mobile and Montgomery; 4,807 received from Florida; 14,546 received from Texas.

ALABAMA.—Exported foreign, 430,846; coastwise, 143,804; consumption in Mobile, 842; stock, 1st Sept., 1852, 2,319—377,511 bales. In this is included, 344 wrecked cotton returned; 221 received from Texas and New-Orleans; 27,797 stock, 1st September, 1851.

TEXAS.—Exported foreign, 7,235; coastwise, 57,006; stock, 1st Sept., 1852, 317—64,648 bales. In this is included, 506 stock, 1st September, 1851.

FLORIDA.—Exported foreign, 64,492; coastwise, 123,829; stock in Apalachicola, 1st September, 1852, 451—188,773 bales. In this is included, 273 stock in Apalachicola, 1st September, 1851.

GEORGIA.—Exported foreign, uplands, 111,240; Sea Islands, 7,605; coastwise, uplands, 224,958; Sea Islands, 3,656; burnt at Savannah, 5,600; stock in Savannah, 1st Sept., 1852, 2,950; stock in Augusta, 1st September, 3,707—359,725 bales. In this is included, 34,011 stock in Savannah and Augusta, 1st September, 1851.

SOUTH CAROLINA—CHARLESTON.—Exported foreign, uplands, 270,427; Sea Islands, 10,008; coastwise, uplands, 199,605; Sea Islands, 3,305; burnt at Charleston, 300—492,645 bales. Export from Georgetown—New-York and Boston, 2,535; Stock in Charleston, 1st Sept., 1852, 11,146—506,320 bales. In this is included, 10,933 stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1851, 18,759 received from Savannah.

NORTH CAROLINA.—Exported foreign, 424; coastwise, 15,818—16,342 bales.

VIRGINIA.—Exported foreign, 35; coastwise and manufactured, (taken from ports), 20,955; stock, 1st September, 450—21,440 bales. In this is included, 620 stock 1st September, 1851.

Received by New-York and Erie Canal, 175.

Total crop of the United States, 1852, 3,015,029 bales.

Total crop of the United States, 1851, 2,355,257 bales.

Increase from last year, 659,772 bales.

From the statement of the cotton crop, prepared for the New-York Shipping and Commercial List and Prices Current, it will be seen that the

	Bales
Total crop, 1851-'52, is .....	3,015,029
Total export .....	2,443,646
Taken for home use at the North .....	603,029
Taken for home use at the South and West .....	75,000
Quantity of new received to 1st inst .....	5,125
Showing an increase in the crop of 659,772 bales, in the export of 454,926, in the consumption at the North, of 198,921; and South and West, of 15,000 bales.	



## COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF GROWTH.

	Bales.		Bales.
Crop of		1842-3	2,378,875
1851-2	3,015,029	1841-2	1,683,574
1850-1	2,355,257	1840-1	1,634,945
1849-50	2,096,706	1839-40	2,177,835
1848-9	2,728,596	1838-9	1,860,532
1847-8	2,247,634	1837-8	1,801,497
1846-7	1,778,651	1836-7	1,422,030
1845-6	2,100,537	1835-6	1,360,725
1844-5	2,304,503	1834-5	1,254,328
1843-4	2,030,409	1833-4	1,205,394

## QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF MANUFACTURERS-NORTH OF VIRGINIA.

	Bales.		Bales.
1851-2	603,029	1842-3	325,129
1850-1	405,108	1841-2	267,850
1849-50	487,769	1840-1	297,268
1848-9	512,039	1839-40	395,193
1847-8	531,772	1838-9	276,018
1846-7	427,967	1837-8	246,063
1845-6	422,597	1836-7	232,540
1844-5	389,006	1835-6	236,733
1843-4	346,744	1834-5	216,888

## CONSUMPTION.

	Bales.
Total crop of the United States, as before stated	3,015,029
Add—	
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, Sept. 1, 1851 :—	
In the southern ports	89,044
In the northern ports	39,260
	128,304
Makes a supply of	3,143,333
Deduct therefrom—	
The export to foreign ports	2,443,646
Less—foreign included	543
	2,443,103
Stocks on hand Sept. 1, 1852 :	
In the southern ports	31,098
In the northern ports	60,078
	91,176
Burnt at Savannah, Charleston and Providence	6,025
	2,540,304
Taken for home use	603,029

We give below our usual table of the amount of cotton consumed the past year in the states south and west of Virginia, and not included in the receipts at the ports. We have increased the estimate somewhat from the year previous, though the number and capacity of the mills have been about the same, but give it only for what it purports to be, an *estimate*, which we believe approximates correctness. Thus, in—

	Quantity consumed.
North Carolina	15,000 bales, of 400 lbs.
South Carolina	10,000 " "
Georgia	22,000 " "
Alabama	5,000 " of 500 lbs.
Tennessee	7,000 " "
On the Ohio, &c.	16,000 " "
Total to Sept. 1, 1852	75,000 "
" " 1851	60,000 "
" " 1850	107,500 "
" " 1849	110,000 "
" " 1848	75,000 "

To which, if we add the stocks in the interior towns, &c., the quantity burnt in the interior, and that lost on its way to market, to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, the aggregate will show very nearly the amount raised in the United States the past season—say, in round numbers, 3,100,000 bales, against 2,450,000 bales the year previous.

During the year just closed, there was received at an eastern port, 175 bales by way of the New-York & Erie Canal, which we have added in another place to the crop of the country.

It may be remarked in this connection, that some of the cotton received overland at Philadelphia and Baltimore is doubtless unaccounted for elsewhere, not being counted in the receipts at New-Orleans, but as we have of late years omitted this item from the crop, it is not now added.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports up to the 1st inst. amounted to about 5,125 bales against about 3,200 bales last year.

The shipments given in this statement from Texas, are those by sea only; a considerable portion of the crop of that state finds its way to market via Red River, and is included in the receipts at New-Orleans.

## EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS, FROM SEPT. 1, 1851, TO AUG. 31, 1852.

From	To Great Britain.	To France.	North of Europe.	Other Foreign Ports.	Total.
New-Orleans—bales .....	172,242	196,254	75,950	134,657	1,179,102
Mobile .....	306,002	97,753	8,826	18,265	430,846
Texas .....	1,388	3,202	2,095	—	7,235
Florida .....	48,638	1,560	9,840	4,454	64,493
Georgia .....	109,378	12,593	2,483	—	124,454
South Carolina .....	297,220	43,950	16,240	22,025	289,435
North Carolina .....	419	—	5	—	424
Virginia .....	—	35	—	—	35
Baltimore .....	71	—	100	—	171
Philadelphia .....	4,619	55	—	422	5,096
New-York .....	218,772	65,973	50,536	4,491	339,772
Boston .....	50	—	2,200	333	2,563
Grand total .....	1,668,749	421,375	168,875	184,647	2,443,646
Total last year .....	1,418,263	301,358	129,492	130,595	1,989,710
Increase .....	250,484	120,017	39,383	45,052	454,936

## 2—AGRICULTURAL PAPERS AND SCHOOLS.

There is no country where the mind is so inquisitive as in America. Travel over the whole world and return, and the truth is seen and felt more palpably. To us the masses of the world are looking for improvement, physically and morally, and for it they seek us by thousands daily. In the United States there are about thirty agricultural journals published, and there are about five hundred thousand copies taken and read by the people—a mere drop to the ocean. There are agricultural journals in the state of New-York that have six times greater circulation than any single paper of the kind in Europe. This only shows how great the thirst we ought to assist in gratifying. In America there is not an agricultural school aided or patronized by the government; and, in fact, it may be said, that there is none at all. Some are just beginning to struggle for life, but the faint, feeble feelings of the general government diffuses itself into every part of its great family, and paralyses the whole body. There is not what may be regarded as a text book in any branch of agricultural or rural economy in America.

Compare what America, as a nation, has done with what has been done by other nations. I can but glance at it. Russia has in all, sixty-eight schools and colleges. She has an agricultural institution with forty college buildings, occupying three thousand acres of land, and attended by several thousand students. The Agricultural Society of St. Petersburg, was established by Queen Catharine. There are under the patronage of the French government seventy school farms, besides the first class colleges, in which professors are employed to lecture on botany, zoology, chemistry, agriculture and the treatment of diseases in cattle; on the culture of woods, forests, &c. These are supported throughout the country. National establishments for the improvement of breed of stock, and colleges for the education of veterinary surgeons and investigating the uses of all discoveries contemplated for agricultural improvement. The government expends in three veterinary schools, a year, for instruction, 754,200 francs; for instruction in agriculture 2,731,468 francs; for encouragement in agriculture 700,000 francs; for improvement in the breeds of horses, and science connected with it, alone, 1,775,400 francs. The requirements for admission in these veterinary schools are as follows: The applicant must not be less than seventeen years of age, and not over twenty-five, and have the following qualifications: to be able to forge a horse or ox shoe after the second heating—pass an examination in the French language, arithmetic, and geography, and after four years' study is permitted to practice veterinary surgery, and receive a diploma. In Belgium, great attention is paid to the subject. There are a hundred agricultural schools or colleges established by the government—a high school of veterinary surgery. The science of agriculture is the most fashionable in the kingdom. They have their palaces furnished more or less with rare specimens of products

of the land, and are farmed like a garden. In Saxony they have five schools; in Italy two; in Scotland two; in Ireland sixty-three; in Bavaria thirty-three; in Prussia thirty-two. The one at Glassnevin, near Dublin, now consists of one hundred and twenty-eight acres of good land, and convenient buildings, and they are about to add to their farm, and increase their buildings so as to accommodate one hundred or more students. Mr. Donaghy is an intelligent practical man. These schools have done more for Ireland than any other attention the government has given them. They have colleges and agricultural schools in England, sustained by the government—some four or five with large farms attached to them—where all the sciences connected with the general business are taught with great perfection, and millions of money each year invested in the general science of agriculture by the nation. It is an investment and not an expenditure. Other countries are engaged in the same business, but I cannot go further in detail. Sufficient is said to draw a parallel between their views and ours. Abroad, they invest millions each year, in a country not larger than an average of our states. Here, in all our country, for seventy-five years, for the general object we have expended \$29,000."

### 3—CONSUMPTION OF TOBACCO IN THE UNITED STATES.

	1840.	1850.
Growth per census..	219,363,319	199,532,494
<i>Export—</i>		
Leaf.....	177,393,600	115,134,000
Manufactured.....	7,503,644	7,235,358
Snuff.....	68,533	37,422
Total exports, lbs...	184,965,797	122,406,780
Balance, lbs.....	34,197,522	77,125,714
Net imports, lbs....	346,035	4,807,858
U. S. consumption..	34,543,557	81,933,572
U. S. " per head	2 lbs. $\frac{1}{4}$ oz.	3 lbs. 8 oz.

This gives an increase of consumption of very nearly  $1\frac{1}{4}$  pounds per head; and the comparison with that of France and England will stand nearly thus:

	France.	Great Britain.	U. States.
Population.....	35,400,486	27,435,325	23,080,973
Tobacco, lbs.....	40,943,088	28,062,978	81,933,572
Per head.....	1 lb. $2\frac{1}{4}$ oz.	1 lb. 0 $\frac{1}{4}$ oz.	3 lbs. 8 oz.
Duty per lb.....	30 cents.	75 cents.	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

The duty on tobacco in the United States is 30 per cent, and on cigars 40 per cent., which at the rates of last year is equal to  $3\frac{1}{4}$  cents per pound on leaf, and 90 cents per pound on cigars. The consumption in England is, no doubt, far greater than the official figures show, because the smuggling must be immense; and a late order has modified the customs so as to permit tobacco not grown in the United States to be imported thence in packages of 80 pounds, instead of 300 pounds, as formerly. This, it is supposed, will give a great impulse to smuggling, and may ultimately work a modification in the duty. In France the tax is not direct, but under the *regie* the average profits of government—above those of the retailers—nearly equal the tax stated. The above figures indicate that the consumption in the United States is overtaking the growth, and there may be soon no tobacco to spare to Europe.

### 4—STOCK-RAISING IN TEXAS.

On a dozen occasions we have referred to the prodigious powers of Texas as a wool-growing and stock-raising country, and we are sustained upon the last point by the Victoria Advocate:

When we first came to Texas, now something more than six years ago, we made up our mind that the raising of cattle was a very profitable business. We

perceived at a moment's glance that they were prolific, thrifty, and raised at little or no expense. We were not without fear, however, that in consequence of the vast numbers of cattle that would be raised, prices would come down considerably in a few years, and thus materially curtail the profits of cattle-raising. Yet how greatly were we mistaken in this particular. Cattle have been constantly on the rise since that time, and are more than twenty per cent. higher than they were in 1845 or '46. In addition to the increasing home demand, the shipping of beef cattle on our steamships to New-Orleans is beginning to assume much importance, requiring some 200 per week, which will rapidly increase in quantity as the facilities for shipping increase.

Assuming, then, as we are fully authorized in doing, that the price of cattle must for many years remain what it is, or go upward, let us see what would be the profits on a given sum of money invested in cattle in Western Texas. We are sure the results will appear fabulous to such as are uninformed touching cattle-raising in Texas. We are equally sure, however, that they are such results as are constantly realized by hundreds of persons in our section of country.

Let us suppose that we invest the sum of five hundred dollars as a commencement. That sum will purchase fifty cows with that many calves, being 100 head.

At the end of the first year we will suppose that out of 50 cows 40 of them will raise calves—our stock will then be..... 140  
 At the end of the 2d year, upon a like supposition, we shall have..... 180  
 At the end of the 3d year, we shall have: from the original stock 40 calves; from the female two-year-olds, (allowing one-half not to raise calves this year,) 10 calves making together 50, which now gives us..... 230  
 At the end of the 4th year we will have as follows: from original stock 40; from three-year-old heifers, (allowing as before for casualties,) 10—making together 70, which added to previous years' stock, gives us..... 300  
 At the end of the 5th year, we will have—from the original stock, 40; from 1st year's females 20; from the 2d year's females 20; from the third year's do., (being the two-year olds,) 10—amounting to 90, which gives 390  
 At the end of the 6th year, let us see how we shall come out; from original stock, 40 from 1st, 2d and 3d year's females, 60; from the 4th or two-year's-olds 10, making 110; we now have..... 500  
 head of cattle as the result of our experiment. Will it stand the test! We think it will.

##### 5.—INFLUENCES OF THE EARTH AND ATMOSPHERE UPON COTTON.

WASHINGTON Co., Miss., Oct. 7th, 1852.

Teluric and atmospheric influences perform an important part in producing new, and modifying known varieties of cotton. In 1844, I planted on my Cane Hills plantation two and a half acres of land in freshly-imported Mexican cotton seed, known as the Alvarado, which were presented to me by a merchant of Vicksburg. The stalks, instead of standing erect, trailed, with their heads or tops slightly raised above the ground. They bore but few bolls, which were remarkable for their enormous size, thick hulls, and large green seed, which were badly clothed with a short coarse fibre, and their leaves were among the broadest and thickest I have seen. Determined so completely to destroy them that no trace or vestige should remain, I took some hands and picked up and burnt not merely the seed with the cotton on, but the stalks and everything belonging to them I could find. This same ground I planted the year after in "100 seed," which was the second year of its discovery. While examining and selecting from this cotton in the fall, I met with divers stalks, the seed and cotton of which bore a seeming affinity to the Alvarado. Being familiar with cottons crossed by insects and the wind, it was plain to me that the phenomenon did not arise from commixture. The boll was in all respects right; but the seed, though of proper size and form, had a slight tinge of green, the fibre was perceptibly shorter and coarser than the "100 seed" standard, and the shades of departure too delicate to have been produced by mechanical means. To the



ground I had to look for an explanation, and to it I had to ascribe the property of reciprocally producing effects upon plants, and having effects wrought upon it by them of sufficient energy and duration to cause one variety of cotton succeeding another so strikingly to exhibit the peculiar traits of the preceding as to arrest the attention of the most ordinary observer. In 1846, I planted some sugar-loaf seed on about eight acres of land in the lower part of the house field of this plantation, in order to make trial of it on the oldest land I had. My "100 seed" stood in juxtaposition to it—intending, as I knew they would mix, to to have no "100 seed" saved nearer than one hundred yards. The next year I removed the sugar loaf to first year's new ground, and planted these same eight acres in "100 seed." On reaching my plantation in the fall, the overseer proposed a walk down the creek, past this ground, professedly for the purpose of showing me his fine field of cotton below the lane. We walked slowly both ways, talking of plantation and Vicksburg matters, without anything remarkable occurring. In the afternoon of the same day, or the next morning, he enticed me into the same walk, and when on our return stopped opposite the stake driven down the previous year to mark the junction of the two cottons, which he knew I would recollect, manœuvering in a way to place me fronting the cotton field which bordered the road unprotected by a fence, my stock being on the opposite side of the creek. On looking up I saw, with pride and pleasure, that what I had two years before suspected, was demonstrated to be true. The "100 seed" to the right of the stake retained its bushy form and usual appearance, while that on the left (on the eight acres) was perceptibly taller and trimmer, and conforming in general appearance to the sugar-loaf. Said I, "Look here, Mr. Terrell, I was not mistaken in the impression I have had for some time; for see the sugar-loaf has communicated to the ground the power to modify the "100 seed" in every respect, and given to it a tendency which, if sufficiently encouraged, would make it run into sugar-loaf." After combating my opinion for some time, he at length said: "Why, the very negroes have noticed the circumstance; and after much discussion among themselves, have arrived at the same conclusion you have." If I labor under no illusion, and I am sure I do not—for I am, as shown, sustained by persons as non-scientific as myself—agriculturists, horticulturalists, improvers and experimentalists, should be careful not to allow the superior immediately to succeed to the inferior plant, grain, grass, flower, &c., of any kind.

H. W. VICK.

#### 6.—MACHINE FOR TOPPING COTTON.

The editor of the Griffin (Ga.) Union has seen the model of a machine for topping cotton, invented by Col. A. A. Dickson, from which great things are expected. The Union describes it as follows:

"The machine is trunnelled along between the rows like a wheelbarrow. The driving wheel propels two sets of revolving blades—one set in a horizontal direction, which tops the cotton—the other in a vertical direction, which lops off the ends of the branches when they are lapping across the rows. It is so constructed that the horizontal blades may be lowered or elevated to suit the height of the cotton, while in operation, at the will of the operator, and is designed to be so lightly constructed that one person may operate with ease, going over ten or twelve acres per day. It tops two rows as it passes along."

#### 7.—REMEDY FOR RUST IN COTTON.

The Newbury (S. C.) Sentinel says that a practical planter, of large experience, recently stated that salt sown at the rate of half a bushel per acre amongst cotton, is a certain remedy against rust. It will not only prevent the rust, but will stay its ravages and restore the diseased plant to its wonted vigor. It is a simple remedy and worth a trial. This is the season for rust, and we give this information that our farmers may try the remedy. If it proves effectual, of which we have not the least doubt, it will be of immense benefit to the planting interests. We would like to receive the result of further trials.

## DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

## WHAT SORT OF A FACTORY WILL FIFTEEN THOUSAND DOLLARS BUILD? AND HOW MUCH WORK WOULD SUCH AN ESTABLISHMENT DO?

In addition to the mass of statistics upon the subject of cotton manufactures, to be found in vol. i. of our Industrial Resources, we add the following calculations, which will show the extent of a fifteen thousand dollar factory, what it will produce daily, and what the expenses would be:

I will give the articles of machinery, and the cost price of each article, and then add an ample amount for freights and expense of putting the whole in operation:

For a plain good wooden building.....	\$2,000	For one dressing frame .....	400
For engine and fixtures.....	2,500	For one yarn press.....	40
For onewillow or cotton breaker.....	50	For one 40 inch wool breaker.....	320
For one Whiting's lap winder.....	425	For one 40 inch burr machine.....	125
For six 30 inch cards and clothing.....	1,320	For one 30 inch wool card finisher,	
For railway drawing and fixtures.....	175	with condenser attached.....	340
For two drawing heads.....	150	For two 160 spindle wool mules.....	720
For one 16 strand speeder.....	240	For clothing for wool cards.....	125
For four 144 spindle throstle frames,		For shafting, hangers, drums, &c.,	705
making 576 spindles, at \$3 each.....	1,728	For freights and expenses of put-	
For twelve looms, at \$50 each.....	600	ting up .....	3,000
For one line spindle reel (40 bob-			
bing).....	37		\$15,000

You have about the extent of the establishment—now for its production and expenses per day.

The looms would produce, at the lowest calculation, 30 yards linsey, making 360 yards per day—this, at 32 cents, is.....	\$115 20	pounds yarn more than the looms would consume for linsey—this, at 12 cents, is.....	18 00
The warp spindles would make 100			\$133 20

The above is a very small calculation in regard to the production of the factory.

The expenses would be as follows:

For 210 pounds cotton, at 8 cents.....	16 80	For clerk.....	1 50
For 200 pounds wool, at 30 cents.....	60 00	For interest on \$15,000 .....	3 28
For 22 hands, at 40 cents per day.....	8 80	For wear and tear, and contingencies.....	10 00
For 2 cord wood, per day, at \$2.....	4 00	For insurance.....	1 32
For oil, for machinery and wool .....	4 00		
For engineer per day.....	2 50		\$116 20
For superintendent .....	4 00		

There are three hundred and thirteen working days in a year; deduct thirty-three days for loss of time, and that would leave two hundred and eighty days. Allowing that number of working days, according to the above calculation the establishment would pay largely over 25 per cent. This is profit sufficient to induce capital to seek investments in the business; and it only wants a commencement, and we shall have factories springing up all around us.

Two reasons why the manufacturing business should engage all our citizens at this time: 1st., our cotton crop is increasing rapidly every year, and it is time we should contend for a part of the profits arising from its manufacture; and 2d., because it is a money-making business.

RANKIN.

## DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

## 1—THE PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD IN MISSOURI.

At present the following system of surveys are being executed simultaneously, by the company at St. Louis:

1st. From St. Louis, by way of the mouth of Pinee, through Springfield, to the southeast corner of the state. This is to have the name proper of the "Pacific Rail-road."

2d. A branch, leaving the main stream at the western edge of St. Louis county, and passing south to the Brown Mountain in St. Francois county.

3d. A branch from the same point, pursuing the bank of the Missouri River, through Jefferson city, thence by Georgetown to the Missouri River, in Jackson county.

These surveys are made in preparation for the assembling of the Legislature, designated by the Governor to be on the 30th of August next.

### 2—BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAIL-ROAD.

**NEW DEPOT AT WASHINGTON.**—The new rail-road depot at Washington, built by the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company, is now nearly completed. The dimensions of the station house, situated at the corner of New-Jersey avenue and C. street, are 106 feet front by 68 deep. It presents a beautiful front, built of Connecticut brown stone, and surmounted with a fine quadrangular tower, 70 feet high and 18 feet square, whose sides exhibit the faces of a large well-regulated timekeeper. The main car-house runs diagonally through the square. It is 60 feet wide and 330 feet long. A long glass window extends through the centre of a grooved iron roof, supported by granite pillars, and girt with massive iron tie beams, remarkable for simplicity and strength. The roof was designed by Mr. Bollman, road-master to the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company. Ample platforms on either side render the entrance and exit from the trains easy and convenient. In the night the building is handsomely lighted with gas. The main entrance to the passenger trains is through a beautiful hall, 45 by 68 feet in area, on either side of which are arranged the ticket and freight offices, ladies and gentlemen's saloons. To the latter are attached elegantly furnished dressing rooms, supplied with mirrors, sofas, and numerous little comforts, seldom, if ever, found at railway stations. Messrs. Niernsee & Neilson, of Baltimore, furnished the designs for the building, which has been erected under the superintendence of Mr. John H. McMachen.—*Balt. American.*

### 3—TEXAS RAIL-ROADS.

It is understood there will be an extra session of the Legislature of Texas in November. A Rail-road Convention assembled not long since in Galveston, of which Dr. Wm. R. Smith was president; Messrs. Menard, Nichols and Hill, vice-presidents; Goddard and Farish, secretaries. A committee, of which L. Sherwood, Esq., was chairman, reported the following propositions:

"1. The construction of Internal Improvements by the state; such improvements to be kept under its exclusive supervision and control; but companies and individuals allowed to engage in the transportation of property and passengers upon them, under such exactions and regulations as may be prescribed.

"2. The establishment of a State Internal Improvement Fund, to be kept separate and distinct from the general, school and all other funds of the state, and faithfully applied to the prosecution and support of internal improvements.

"3. The organization of an Internal Improvement Board of Commissioners, to consist of the Secretary of State, the Controller, Attorney General and five acting commissioners; the acting commissioners to have the personal charge and superintendence of the public works, subject, however, to the direction and supervision of the whole board.

"4. The construction of four great lines of railway, so located as to accommodate, as far as practicable, each section of the state; and adjusted with reference to future railways necessary to be engrafted upon them—the location and plan of said railways to be nearly as follows:

"Commencing at Galveston, crossing West Bay at the most commodious point; thence, running to the head of navigation on Buffalo Bayou, at Houston; thence, northward, through the eastern part of Montgomery county; thence, across the Trinity River, and northward, by the most commodious route, to Red River.

"A branch casting off in Montgomery county, and running northward between the Trinity and Brazos rivers.

"A branch casting off the Galveston road near the head waters of Highland Bayou, running thence to the Brazos River and crossing near Columbia; thence, up the valley of the San Bernard, and between the Brazos and Colorado to the capital of the state.

"A branch casting off the latter road, crossing the San Bernard and Colorado, and running westward on the commodious route, to San Antonio.

"The construction of the said railways to commence at the coast and be prosecuted first to the points where all the branches cast off: then, the four roads to be contemporaneously prosecuted to completion, equal distances as near as may be, until the Southwestern road shall reach San Antonio; the Western road, the state capital; the Eastern road, Red River; and the Northwestern road, an average distance with the other roads from Galveston.

"5. The improvement of the inside coast navigation by canals, and the removal of obstructions, so as to afford complete steamboat navigation for river boats from the Sabine to the Rio Grande; also, the improvement of our navigable rivers.

"The interest on all loans effected for the purpose of internal improvements on the credit of the state, and the interest on all loans contracted for the payment of previous loans, to be faithfully and fully paid by taxation, and from year to year as the same shall accrue. As an additional assurance and security, the present surplus of two millions or more, and its increase, to be added to the internal improvement fund, invested in United States stocks, and pledged to the public creditor for the faithful payment of interest. These provisions both to be secured by the constitution.

"7. After satisfying all just claims against the public domain, fifty million acres of the public lands, or the proceeds of their sale, to be attached to the internal improvement fund, and secured to it by fundamental law.

"8. All revenues to arise from internal improvements, after paying expenses of superintendence and repairs, to be set apart as a sinking fund for the exhaustion of the principal.

"That for the purpose of proposing amendments to the constitution, so as to allow the state to embark in the construction of internal improvements; and for the purpose of proposing other amendments to carry out an internal improvement system, to be adjusted and fixed by fundamental law; we recommend the call of an extra session of the Legislature, to be held as early as January next."

The Committee remark in regard to the resources, etc. of the state:

"The state has already assumed an important position in the eyes of the world. She has something of interesting reputation abroad. Texas, *as Texas*, has a history. Texas is known to the world as an empire in extent. She has a public domain of more than 100,000,000 of acres. She has a population abounding more in actual wealth and natural resources, than any equal number of people on the globe. She is now receiving an accession to her substantial population faster than any other state in the Union. She holds out incentives to immigration, that, in their combination, are not equaled elsewhere. Her entire soil is a self-swarding, self-resuscitating soil, covered with nutritious grasses. Her numerous herds, unfed by the hand of man, indicate a wealth that runs wild. Her capacity for producing sugar, cotton, tobacco and other staples of the South, is equaled only by her capacity for grazing and for the production of fruits, corn and the cereal grains. We can refer to no country that equals Texas in agricultural capacity; and no country in America, whose climate equals hers in wealth and blandness of atmosphere. But while we refer to the vast extent of the state, the abundance of her resources and the incentives to immigration: it must not escape us that these are to be made available to us through the wisdom of a just and beneficent policy—a policy that shall separate the enterprise of our people from rashness; that shall bind the people in harmony of sentiment and action; that shall be steady and undeviating in its operation and certain in its results. Texas has too few in numbers to give efficiency to divided territory and population. She has too much to accomplish to allow of divided effort. If sectional tenacity shall be suffered to confuse the plans of action, nothing essential will be accomplished for many years. If the state hold together, and the



people harmonize in concerted action and steady effort, there is no financial achievement, consistent with the vastness of its resources, which the state cannot accomplish.

#### 4.—VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT CONVENTION.

This body met at Union, Va., on the 19th Aug. last, and continued in session for three days. Gen. P. H. Steinberger, was appointed president; and Jefferson Kinney, secretary. After organizing and appointing a committee of thirteen to report on the business before the convention, a recess was taken till the afternoon. On re-assembling, the convention was addressed in a clear and forcible speech by Mr. Apperson, of Kentucky, president of the Maysville and Big Sandy Rail-road Company, in which the value of a connection of the central line with the rail-roads in Kentucky, was strongly set forth. His argument exhibited irresistible reasons for the speediest possible prosecution and completion of the Central Rail-road.

Among the speakers were Messrs. Wm. B. Preston, Botts, Rives, Gifford, McFarlane, and Prof. De Bow, of the Southern Review. The subject of the report of the committee was a recommendation of the early completion of the several lines already begun, including the Norfolk and Petersburg road; the loaning of state bonds to the several internal improvement companies for the purpose of completing their respective works; and the extension of the works of the James River and Kanawha Company, by a rail-road from Covington or Clifton Forge, to the Ohio River, with a gauge of five feet.

The question of the gauge excited an animated discussion, and it was finally decided to leave it open. The report, as adopted, recommends the immediate construction of a branch of the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road down New River to the mouth of Greenbrier, and a rail-road from the western terminus of the canal to the Ohio River, to be constructed under the auspices of the James River and Kanawha Company.—*Rail-road Journal*.

#### 5.—LOUISIANA RAIL-ROADS.

**NEW-ORLEANS AND JACKSON AND NORTHERN ROAD.**—The indisposition of Mr. Robb, the president, during the summer, has not interfered with the work. The engineer, Mr. Clarke, with two corps of assistants, has been long in the field. Whilst Mr. Winchester has been at work between Canton and Aberdeen, Mr. Grant has, no doubt, already progressed very far in the location between Florence and Aberdeen. The intention is to connect Aberdeen with Canton and Jackson as speedily as possible, in order to open the Tombigbee valley to New-Orleans.

**OPELOUSAS ROAD.**—The engineer, Mr. Gibbs, has been instructed so to prosecute the detailed survey as to be ready to put under contract by October. The company have located sixty-seven miles of the road, starting from the main depot in Algiers, and passing up the river nineteen and a half miles, thence taking the ridge of high land south-westwardly from the Mississippi, (south of Lake des Allemandes,) and crossing the Bayou des Allemandes and striking the high lands of the Lafourche thirty-seven miles from Algiers—thence crossing the Lafourche at fifty-one miles, and passing through the western limits of the beautiful village of Thibodaux, and thence to the high lands of Chuohoula to Tigerville, on Bayou Black, the head of steamboat navigation, the whole distance being 67 miles.

Judge John H. Overton, of St. Landry, has been elected president of the company, to fill the place so efficiently occupied by the late lamented Christopher Adams, Jr.

The selection of depots opposite the city has already been made. The grounds belonging to the heirs of Brown, situated nearly midway between Gretna and Algiers, (nearest to Gretna,) have been purchased by the company, on which proper depot buildings are to be erected, intended for the accommodation of the 1st and 4th districts.

Arrangements have been made, and they will, no doubt, be consummated, for

the purchase of the Belleville foundry in Algiers, with a view of converting it into a depot for the accommodation of the 2nd and 3rd districts. This property, houses, lands and machinery, is held at the price of one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars.

#### 6.—ARKANSAS RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

This convention, which was held in Little Rock, was attended by delegates from Mississippi, Arkansas, and Tennessee.

Among the resolutions passed, was one highly approving of a rail-road connection from St. Louis, through Arkansas, with the Opelousas, New-Orleans, and Great Western road.

The committee on routes reported in favor of a central route from the Mississippi, opposite Memphis, to Fulton, or some point near that place, on Red River. This is regarded as the great trunk line of improvement for the state; and the work on which the people of Arkansas seem inclined to concentrate their energies at present. The committee also reported for the consideration of the convention a route from Helena to Fort Smith; a route from Gaines' Landing on the Mississippi, through the town of Camden to Fulton; and noticed the New-Orleans and Opelousas Great Western Rail-road as a work worthy of encouragement. Among the published proceedings we find the report of Powhatan Robinson, civil engineer, "of an exploration and preliminary reconnoissance of the country between Little Rock and Memphis," in which the cost of building the road is estimated at a fraction over \$11,000 per mile.

*Resolved.*—That this convention appoint a sufficient number of suitable gentlemen, residing in various sections of this state, whose duty it *shall be* to canvass this state, and address the people, and urge upon the importance of building rail-roads generally, and particularly the proposed Central Rail-road from Memphis, Tennessee, to Fulton, on Red River.

#### 7.—NEW-ORLEANS AND ST. LOUIS ROAD.

The Western Journal at St. Louis presses this matter with spirit and zeal. We make our acknowledgments for the following letter, which we copy, and which is the production of a distinguished Missourian.

After speaking of the difficulty of obtaining knowledge in regard to the country for some distance up the St. Francois and Big Black River, he continues:—

"I have from personal observation but a limited knowledge of the country between this point and Helena, extending only from the table lands at the sources of St. Francois and Black Rivers to a short distance below Greenville, in Wayne county.

"It is on those table lands that the beautiful settlements of Bellevue and Arcadia are made, and between them the Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob rear their iron heads; and with full confidence I can speak of the entire practicability of constructing a rail-road from hence to a point below Greenville, on or near the southern line of the state, on a route more direct, and of lower grade than can be obtained for the same distance in south-eastern Missouri—certainly more so, than from St. Louis to the Iron Mountain. Although the descent from this elevated portion of country is about the same to Greenville as to St. Louis, the descent is easier and more direct to the former. The elevation above St. Louis, taken at the base of the Iron Mountain by Major Morell, in his survey made in 1837, was found to be 800 feet. In ascending from St. Louis, the very meandering course of Big River, with its numerous tributaries running from almost every point of the compass, will occasion the crossing of several dividing ridges, which must greatly enhance the cost of construction. But I am happy to learn a corps of engineers are now on the line, making a reconnoissance for a rail-road from St. Louis to the neighborhood of the Mountain and Knob, which will give you more certain and accurate information.

"To descend southwardly from the Iron Mountain to Greenville, two routes present themselves by streams, which take their rise almost at the base of the Pilot Knob. The more western, by Bruer's Creek, I think, would be preferred,

because more direct, and would save bridging the St. Francois. The eastern route would penetrate more deeply into the heart of Madison county, approaching near Mine la Motte, but is more circuitous, and would occasion the construction of two bridges across the St. Francois.

"There is a point below Greenville, on the west side of the St. Francois, you are forced to, in constructing a rail-road from St. Louis south, with a view to connect with the Holly Spring Rail-road in Mississippi. A connection with Memphis is impracticable, by reason of the extensive lakes and swamps on the lower St. Francois, *which never can be reclaimed*. The point I alluded to is a narrow neck of land below Greenville, between the St. Francois and Big Black: it is low, but not a swamp—having a slough across it, through which, in times of very high floods, the water of the St. Francois passes into Black River. Immediately beyond this, as I learn from good authority, Crowley's Ridge rises and forms the divide between the swamps and lower small tributaries of those two rivers, continuing its course in a direction to the neighborhood of Helena, in Arkansas.

"Having some acquaintances in that region of our state in whom I can place the most implicit confidence, and who are familiar with the profile of the country between the lower St. Francois and Black Rivers, I will address them on the subject, and forward their communications when received.

"There is no portion of our state more interesting, and yet so little known, as the section to which this subject refers—none, in my mind, more interesting to the prosperity of St. Louis—she feels and is proud of her commanding commercial position, but to maintain it against the numerous rivals that are being created by the magnificent projects of internal improvements which are now going forward east, and south and north of her, she must exert herself, and secure a system of manufactures, one of which it is now in her power to make exclusively her own, by the construction of the rail-road you advocate, and thus become the Birmingham of the vast valley of the Mississippi.

"The line of rail-road you have suggested, would traverse more than one hundred miles of the richest iron deposits on the globe, from the Merrimac to the swamps; scarce one section of land can be passed without finding on it deposits of iron ore, and in many localities in astonishing quantities. Notwithstanding the vast amount of iron ore found in the Mountain and Knob, I am of opinion Wayne county contains more iron ore than any county in the state, and perhaps nearly as much water power; yet it is useless, and the lands of that county valueless, even at government price, except in a very few localities, because she is cut off from an easy and direct access to the Mississippi by the swamps extending from Cape Girardeau to the mouth of the St. Francois.

"In this elevated region we have no coal formations; it is mostly primitive—yet we have abundance of timber, and only want a cheap and ready transportation to the Mississippi, to enable us to rival all others in the manufacture of iron. That we can make as good iron as any produced on the globe, and under a correct system of management cheaper than can be furnished by any state of this Union, is easily demonstrated.

"St. Louis, situated as she is, in the heart of extensive coal fields, should contain the finishing shops of our iron manufacture, and the numerous structures from it, that have become necessary to man, for his convenience, security, and pleasure. Why is it that Pittsburgh, and other cities on the Ohio, can afford to pay us an *extra price* for our pig metal and blooms; and after paying all cost of transportation and incidental expenses, return it to us in a finished state, selling it with a profit? Pittsburgh, like St. Louis, has naturally a strong commercial position, and has only been able to maintain it by calling to her aid, the great coal fields at her door, in building up her iron and other manufactures, thus making herself a point of convenience and attraction to the merchant and trader. Your city should look to this example, and thus maintain her pre-eminence as the commercial city of the great West. The vast importance of the road you advocate, in a commercial point of view, must be readily seen by the enterprising men of St. Louis. It is surprising that New-Orleans and Southern Mississippi should have slept so long, dreaming in the security of their commercial position, while Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina, were spreading their

network of rail-roads to rob her of her trade. It is well, if it is not too late,—your projection is the only one to save them any respectable part. The coalition has been strengthened by the addition of Illinois, Kentucky and Western Tennessee. Memphis, Cairo, and Paducah, are great connecting points, and will fight hard against any rail-road improvements, connecting St. Louis with a point on the Mississippi below them.

### 8.—KENTUCKY RAIL-ROADS.

**COVINGTON AND LEXINGTON RAIL-ROAD.**—The Common Council of the city of Covington passed an ordinance on the 26th August, authorizing the president of the board to indorse the bonds of the Lexington and Covington Rail-Road Company to the amount of \$200,000.

**SHELBYVILLE AND HARRODSBURG RAIL-ROAD.**—We are authorized to say that the whole section of the Harrodsburg Rail-road, from its junction with the Frankfort Rail-road, near Hobb's station, to Shelbyville, is under contract, that a considerable number of hands are now at work upon it, and that the number will immediately be increased to two hundred. Engineers are at work between Shelbyville and Harrodsburg with a view to the location of the route.—*Lou. Jour.*

### 9.—NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROADS.

The cars on the Charlotte road are running beyond the Catawba bridge for several miles. The King's Mountain road is finished for 25 miles, and the cars for Chesterville are only distant seven miles from Yorkville.

The Centre Rail-road through North Carolina, connecting with the Charlotte road, is nearly entirely graded. It is also in discussion to connect Charlotte with Jonesboro', Tennessee.

The following is a list of South Carolina rail-roads :

Names of Rail-roads.	Comp'd. In pro. Proj'd.		
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.
1. South Carolina—from Charleston to Hamburg.....	136	..	..
2. Columbia Branch—from Branchville to Columbia.....	67	..	..
3. Camden Branch—from Junction (43 miles from Branchville) to Camden.....	37	..	..
4. Wilmington to Manchester—from Camden Junction to Wilmington, N. C. (total 168 miles).....	34	92	..
5. Charlotte and South Carolina—from Columbia to Charlotte, N. C. (total 112 miles).....	78	18	..
6. Greenville and Columbia—from Columbia to Greenville, ..	80	61	..
7. Union and Spartanburg—from Alston on Greenville and Columbia (No. 6) to Union and Spartanburg.....	..	..	66
8. Laurens—from Newbury Court-house (on No. 6) to Laurens ..	75	8	..
9. Abbeville Branch—from Cokesbury (on No. 6) to Abbeville.....	..	12	..
10. Anderson Branch—from— (on No. 6) to Anderson Court House ..	..	11	..
11. Rabun Gap—from Anderson Court-house through South Carolina, Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, to a junction with Hiwassee Rail-road (about 170 miles) ..	..	..	38
Total.....	447	203	98

#### RECAPITULATION.

Length of Rail-road completed.....	447 miles.
“ “ in progress.....	203 “
“ “ projected.....	98 “
Total length of rail-roads.....	748 “



## EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI, AND  
A NAVY-YARD AT NEW-ORLEANS.

THE people of New-Orleans having set about a radical reform in all their modes of government and business enterprise, have taken up at last with great interest the vital matter of deepening the mouth of the Mississippi, and with it the question long in discussion of a navy-yard at New-Orleans. An act of tardy justice having been vouchsafed to them at the last session of Congress, in an appropriation of \$75,000 towards the first-named measure, a reasonable hope exists that it will be carried through by other appropriations, whatever the expense involved, and that the navy-yard itself, from its obvious importance to the commercial interests and maritime security of the whole southern and western seaboard, will command early and prompt attention.

Every one is aware that the mouth of the Mississippi has been undergoing incessant changes as far back as the history of the river can be traced. Old channels have been filling up and new ones forming; at the same time that a continued sedimentary deposit has forced the delta itself continually to encroach upon the sea. The depth of water afforded in these channels has never been equal to the requisitions of commerce, and it is only by dint of the most enormous application of steam power, and plowing through deep beds of sand, that the largest class of ships are enabled to navigate the channel. Considerable expense is always incurred in this manner, and delays prejudicial to trade. We have known of a ship, the *Coromandel*, in one instance, grounded in the Pass thirty-nine days. More lately, from forty to even eighty-three days' detention has been sustained by shipping, as will appear in the following plate. (See page 530.)

In 1720, of all the Passes, the *south* one only was in use. A Report among the French Colonial Records, now in Paris, of date about 1730, gives the depth from ten to twelve feet on the bars, varying each year according to the violence of the winds, etc. Another Report by M. Paria gives a depth of seventeen feet to one of the Passes which had hitherto been but twelve feet only, and argues that twenty-two feet might be insured by dredges. The employment of two vessels three months in the year was tried during a portion of this time by the West India Company, but it worked badly. "A *flute* was then placed inside of the bar and sunk into eighteen feet by means of wells built for that purpose, inside such vessel, and filled

up with water. This vessel was placed close to the bank of the bar for the purpose of receiving the cargoes of vessels that could not cross. It was soon perceived that the flute, receiving the whole power of the current, was forcing a passage of twenty-five feet through the Pass. The whole matter was immediately communicated to government."

Examined before the Committee on Commerce of the Legislature, in March, 1846, William D. Talbot, a resident of the Balize for twenty-five years, used the following language:

The bars at the various Passes change very often. The channels sometimes change two or three times in a season. Occasionally one gale of wind will change the channel. The bars make to seaward every year. The Southwest Pass is now the main outlet. It has been so for only three years, as at that time there was as much water in the Northeast Pass as in it. The Southeast Pass was the main ship channel twenty years ago; there is only about six feet water in that Pass now, and where it was deepest then, there is only a few inches of water at this time. The visible shores of the river have made out into the Gulf two or three miles within his memory. Besides the deposit of mud and sand, which form the bars, there frequently arise bumps or mounds near the channel, which divert its course. These bumps are supposed to be the production of salt springs, and sometimes are formed in a very few days. They sometimes rise four or five feet above the surface of the water. He knew one instance when some brick that were thrown overboard from a vessel outside the bar, in three fathoms water, were raised above the surface by one of these banks, and were taken to the Balize and used in building chimneys. In another instance, an anchor which was lost from a vessel, was lifted out of the water, so that it was taken ashore. About twenty years ago a sloop, used as a lighter, was lost outside the bar in a gale of wind; several years afterwards she was raised by one of these strange formations, and her cargo was taken out of her.

Lieut. Poole, of the United States Engineers, in his Report of February, 8, 1847, remarks: "Great changes have taken place in the last fifteen years in this (the Southwest) and the Northeast Pass, which has been deepening while this has been filling up." It is stated where the island, shown upon sheet No. 3, now is, there was at that period six fathoms water. The process seems to be still going on; the space between this island and Antonio being nearly covered by a shoal, the centre of which is already above water. During a few days that two

A detailed map of the English Channel and surrounding waters, showing the 'GEORGIA'S TRACK' and various ships. The map includes depth soundings (10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17) and labels for ships such as 'MIDDLESEX', 'WINCHESTER', 'PROCESS', 'GEORGIA', 'STEARNS', 'MONTREAL', 'LIBERTY', and 'STEARNS'. The map is framed by a decorative border.

(Scale 600 feet to the Inch.)

VESSELS ON NEW-ORLEANS R.R.

\* The Middlesex and cargo got damaged (by collision) on the bar \$30,000, and returned to repair. Many other vessels than those above were aground at the same time, awaiting a swell from southeasterly gales.

ships were lying aground on the middle bank of the Southwest Pass, in eight feet water, a channel formed between them, through which a ship of *sixteen feet draught* passed out without obstruction!

The project of deepening or improving these outlets has been for a long time before the general government, and special reports upon the subject prepared by the engineer service after extended surveys.

Three methods have been principally insisted upon with different degrees of merit and expense:

1st. To deepen by dredging-machines one or two of the Passes.

2d. To close up all but one of them where they leave the river trunk.

3d. To cut a canal from the river to the gulf.

All of these are regarded practicable. Supposing the first and second adopted together, Captain Chase estimates the expense as follows, to give sufficient depth of water:

Dredging N. E. Pass.....	\$160,000
Do. S. W. Pass.....	210,000
	<hr/>
	\$370,000

with an annual subsequent expenditure of \$72,000 more.

Closing the Passes.....	\$214,500
Jette at N. E. Pass.....	100,000
Jette at S. W. ".....	182,500
Contingencies, &c.....	30,000
	<hr/>
	\$527,000

The line of the ship canal is proposed from a point two and a quarter miles below Fort Jackson, and extending seven miles to the shore of the Gulf, and thence by a jette, 1760 yards to 30 feet water. The canal to be 100 feet wide at top, and thirty feet deep. The cost of this magnificent work is estimated thus:

For the lock and guard work..	\$300,000
For trunk of the Canal.....	2,669,333
Jetties and Breakwater.....	2,463,996
Channel between.....	3,420,000
Contingencies.....	1,146,671
	<hr/>
	\$10,000,000*

We have not the figures for any later estimates, but have no doubt that those which are furnished will exceed rather than fall below the actual mark of expenditure.

How insignificant is this amount to a nation whose annual revenues are nearly \$50,000,000, and whose annual foreign commerce is between 4 and \$500,000,000?

How insignificant is it too when it is considered that by opening the navigation of

this great inland sea the commerce of half the states of the Union is freed from its fetters, and allowed to float to the great ocean, ten millions of people are accommodated, and two hundred millions of commerce (for that amount enters or departs annually through the Mississippi) is relieved from the onerous taxation which it pays at present! Upon the single item of freights alone it is estimated that the use of smaller vessels to which the shallowness of water is driving the commerce of the west, instead of those of largest size and capacity, will be attended with a loss of \$2 per bale, or \$3,800,000 annually upon the cotton crop, and equally as much perhaps upon the total of other articles of export. In all about \$5,000,000 per annum!

The diagram page 530 shows\* a loss from the detention of \$1,500,000 worth of property, which in a single year would pay for almost the entire improvement, if we calculate interest, loss of markets, important mails, etc.

How loudly and earnestly do the necessities of the West demand the opening of this river, and upon what pretext can Congress delay for a single hour so great and national a measure? In Congress all the power vests. Neither New-Orleans nor Louisiana, nor any sister state, nor all of them together, have any power to move or to act. The overshadowing power of Congress covers and embraces all. How great then the responsibility, and to how strict an accountability should that body be held! Even Mr. Calhoun, with all his doctrines of strict construction, could not but perceive and acknowledge in his profound and masterly report, that the Mississippi is a law unto itself—an "inland sea," and in its improvements altogether a matter of national concern.

What is this Mississippi River?

"It has its source near the boundary between the United States and the British possessions; it passes through the commercial as well as the geographical heart of the Union, and finally empties into the Gulf of Mexico. Bordering on the west bank of the river are the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and the Territory of Minnesota; on the east bank are Wisconsin, Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi making two continuous tiers of states, spanning the entire Union from British America to the Gulf of Mexico. All the great rivers that flow from the Rocky Mountains, through Nebraska, the Indian Territory, and upper Texas—the Missouri, the Platte, the Arkansas, the Canadian, and the Red rivers, with their numerous navigable branches—empty into the Mississippi. On the east side are several rivers in Wisconsin and Illinois, the Ohio and its tributaries, including the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, and minor streams from the state of Mississippi—making fifteen states and territories in the richest and most productive portion of the habitable globe, whose commerce naturally flows into the channel of

\* See De Bow's Industrial Resources, Vol. 2, art. Mississippi River, etc.

the Mississippi river. If such a river be not a national highway for the United States, then the Atlantic ocean is not. The border of the Atlantic coast, from the state of Mississippi to the British line, has Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New-Jersey, New-York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Maine—being fourteen states. Add Pennsylvania and Vermont, which are not immediately on the coast, and there would be sixteen states. But the western part of Pennsylvania has a large commerce on the Ohio, and thence down the Mississippi river. So that the commerce of the Mississippi river arises from as many states and territories as border the Atlantic coast from Maine to the Mississippi line, thereby making the Mississippi river as much a national highway for all the purposes of commerce and national defence as the Atlantic ocean itself. No single state has the sole right to improve this river. The Constitution forbids all the states from making compacts or agreements with one another, and therefore the Mississippi cannot be improved by a combination of a part or all of the fifteen states and territories immediately interested in its navigation."

We come to the question of a navy yard at New-Orleans. An appropriation has already been made for purchasing a site for a *naval depot*. The exposed condition of New-Orleans was strikingly manifested in 1815, when the British came up to its very doors. Mr. Jefferson, in his messages of 1806-7 and 9, urged the defences of the city with great ability and power. In 1822, Mr. Monroe said, "that the seizure of no part of the Union, could affect so deeply and so vitally the immediate interests of so many states, etc., etc., as the seizure of that city;" and he directed Gen. Bernard, a distinguished European engineer, to reconnoitre carefully the whole gulf, with the view of affording the required security. Mr. Adams and General Jackson called frequent attention to the matter.

Notwithstanding these facts, up to the present moment nothing whatever has been done, whilst the navy yards, dry docks, fortifications, etc., of the North, have received the most enormous sums. With a shore line of coast from Cape Henry, exclusive of bays, rivers, &c., to the northeastern boundary of *nine hundred and eighty-seven miles*, the North has *seven* navy yards, whilst upon a shore line from Cape Florida to the Rio Grande, *one thousand six hundred and sixty-five miles*, the southwest has but *two* such yards!!

This subject will no doubt be urged upon Congress hereafter with great zeal. The representatives of Louisiana have already done themselves honor in the spirit with which they have moved, and the success, although partial, which they have achieved. Nor have the Chamber of Commerce and

its committee acted in any other than the true and catholic spirit. We have before us an interesting memorial from the general council to the Secretary of the Navy, and also a report of Mr. Labouze, chairman of the committee on Federal Relations of the State of Louisiana. From the last we cannot do better than to make some most interesting extracts, with which our present paper must close:

"The peculiar geographical formation of Louisiana subjects it to the liability of invasion from lawless banditti; who, in time of war, could make sudden descents on the inhabitants, carrying with them the destruction of life and property. Even a legitimate enemy would find strong inducements, from the facility of access, to carry on a harassing predatory warfare. On the east of New-Orleans there is a chain of lakes, extending from the Gulf far into the interior, which connect with the Mississippi by bayous which enter those lakes. The waters of one of those lakes approach to within a few miles of the city of New-Orleans. On the west, there are numerous deeply indented bays, which are united with the Mississippi far above New-Orleans by the various bayous connecting these estuaries in the Gulf with the river. This peculiar feature in the physical formation of Louisiana makes it very assailable by an enemy, and rendering land fortifications of very little value against his incursions.

"The Gulf, too, is dotted with numerous islands of a size so insignificant as scarcely to be worthy of the notice of the geographer, which, on this very account, induce pirates in unsettled times to seek resort there as a secure hiding-place, from which they issue to make attacks on the commerce of the Gulf, and even to make incursions on the inhabitants bordering on it.

"English, French and Spanish cruisers are to be found in the Gulf and the neighboring seas. In the event of a war, the Gulf would be the first, because the most vulnerable point of attack. It would be so sudden, that all the evil would be accomplished before relief could be had from our many navy yards at the North: and hence the necessity of having always a permanent fleet in our waters. Our great commercial naval rival, at the distance of more than three thousand miles from our shores, is better supplied with resorts for her vessels of war in the neighborhood of the Gulf than we are ourselves; England has her naval stations in the southern waters, beginning at Bermuda, dotted along through the Bahamas, the Leeward Islands, and finally at the important island of Jamaica. This great naval power, with consummate wisdom, makes it a point, at whatever cost, to have in the neighborhood of the cruising ground of her fleets, all over the world, naval stations to which they can resort for the purpose of supplies, of repairs and refitting, from which they can sail for the purposes of attack.



The committee think it would be the part of wisdom in us to follow her example in this respect.

"The committee think that the facts and views which they have presented, clearly demonstrate the necessity of having a permanent naval force in the Gulf for the protection of its commerce and of its coasts. They are equally convinced, that this will never be secured to them until a navy yard is established at New-Orleans. The only existing navy yard on the Gulf is insufficient to accommodate the increased naval force which the wants of the Gulf so clearly demand at this moment, and which the signs of the times clearly indicate will still more be required in the future. An increased naval force, without the necessary appendage of a navy yard to which it can resort to supply all the wants of repairs, munitions of war and provisions, in the immediate neighborhood of its cruising ground, would be worse than useless, for it might cause it to fall an easy prey to an enemy, having these facilities near at hand, as is the case with the English naval forces in the Gulf. Any increase of a naval force in the Gulf must, in the nature of things, therefore, be preceded by the establishment of a navy yard near to its waters, and this portion of the Union need never expect that protection from the government which they have a right to claim, until this preliminary step is first adopted.

"Another reason—and which the committee think an important one—for the establishment of a navy yard on the Gulf is this: The improvements of the day have made steam the great element of the propelling power of naval armaments. With vessels of this description, our principal rival on the ocean—and indeed the other lesser powers—are well provided. We can only successfully cope with our enemies by being well provided with vessels of similar construction. Steam vessels of various sizes are peculiarly adapted to the Gulf, and is what is most required. The power to move with great rapidity from point to point, which steam now gives to vessels of war, has so changed the mode of attack, that sailing vessels and land fortifications cannot now afford that protection which they formerly did. For defence we must—as a natural result of this state of things—rely on naval armaments. Without these, the committee, though reluctant to avow the fact, are nevertheless compelled to say, that New-Orleans is now nearly as much exposed as in 1814, when on account of its defenceless condition the British were induced to invade our shores. All remember the deep anxiety which this occasioned throughout the whole Union. The committee have shown with what solicitude, after the war, the necessity of suitable defences was then pressed on the consideration of Congress by Mr. Monroe. The committee think the subject is now even more than then worthy of all the considera-

tion which the government at Washington can bestow on it, and that, too, without any farther delay. A navy yard, then, of the proper kind for the steam naval force required on these waters should be the first thing decided on, in order that all its arrangements should be made in view of the particular kind of force which would find its shelter there. In the opinion of the committee, it is not only important that an additional naval force should be permanently stationed in the Gulf, and an additional navy yard should be established in its waters, but it is of the highest importance that it should be done without further delay. Europe rests on a slumbering volcano. The times are pregnant with great events which before long will develop themselves. When the outbreak occurs on the continent of Europe, the conflict will be one of unusual asperity, and there cannot be a doubt, that the contest between liberal opinions on the one hand, and despotism on the other, will involve all the principal powers of Europe. The experience of the world and our own lead to the conviction, that however sincere may be our efforts to preserve a strict neutrality, we will be drawn into the contests of the old world, and that experience admonishes us to be prepared before hand. It is equally clear, that should collisions occur with other nations, the ocean will be the great arena of conflict, and the first to be attacked will be the exposed coast of the Gulf, and the commerce passing through it. The rich treasures from our possessions on the Pacific, passing through the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf—amounting to millions of gold—will offer, as of old the galleons did to the buccaniers, the strongest inducements to the cupidity of an enemy.

A timely precaution will save us millions, and thus will protect the interests of our fellow-citizens, and at the same time will preserve the honor of our flag untarnished.

"The position of New-Orleans points to that city as the proper place for a navy yard. Perhaps there is no locality in the whole Union so admirably adapted to the purposes of a navy yard for steamers as New-Orleans. This, as your committee have already stated, must be the force to be employed in order to give an efficient protection to the Gulf. All the wants required by this description of vessels are to be found there in the greatest abundance, and of every variety. What is remarkable, too, is that nearly all the states bordering on the Ohio and the Mississippi can supply respectively all the different materials required for naval steamers. Western Pennsylvania can furnish the iron in all its varieties of workmanship; Western Virginia, timber and coal;\* Kentucky and Missouri, hemp; Illinois, lead; Ohio and

\* The bituminous can be furnished at \$4 50 to \$5 per ton or load, cheaper by \$2 50 than is paid by the Cunard steamers for an inferior article, and very nearly the price at which anthracite is supplied on the Atlantic seaboard.

Indiana, flour and pork; Tennessee from her foundries can supply cannon and ball. At New-Orleans, too, all the persons required for steamers can always at the shortest notice be procured, from the coal heaver and fireman, including deck hands, to the engineers who direct the machinery. The numerous steamboats on the Mississippi afford the best school for training persons to all the various duties required on board of steamers. These men are known to be the bravest, hardiest any where to be found. Even for the purposes of building vessels of war, New-Orleans is most advantageously situated, for she is in close proximity to the live-oak of Florida, and the western part of Louisiana can furnish the best kinds of cedar and other varieties of wood useful in the construction of vessels.

"Hitherto many difficulties existed at New-Orleans which were unfavorable for the purposes of a naval station, and probably this is one cause why that city has been overlooked by the general government. But these difficulties have passed away, and the committee cannot possibly conceive any reason why New-Orleans should not be a naval station, but on the contrary they think there are strong and controlling considerations why there should be one there. Formerly the insalubrity of the climate was one reason operating against the establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans; now it is different, for not only is the city not annually visited with the usual yellow fever, but the disease when it does appear is robbed of its former terrors by the skill of the modern practitioner. Formerly it was difficult to obtain even ordinary laborers except at very high rates of wages. The difficulty of obtaining mechanics was still greater, and some species of that kind of labor could not be procured at all. Now laborers can be procured not only in abundance, but also at very low rates of wages. Artisans too of every variety of mechanic skill, can be obtained at prices probably comparing with northern cities.

"Formerly the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi presented a difficulty which is now obviated, for modern skill has applied to naval architecture the happy combination of increased capacity of hull, with diminution of draft. This remark particularly applies to steamers, of which many have entered New-Orleans—crossing the bar with ease—of sufficient size to bear all the armament required in a war steamer. Formerly the distance of New-Orleans from the seat of government was a serious objection on account of the length of time required to communicate from Washington to that city. Now that difficulty is removed, for by means of rail-roads already in operation, and by means of others in process of construction, which will soon be finished, New-Orleans can be reached in four days from the seat of government. Besides which we have that

greatest of modern inventions, the telegraph—by which the orders of the Secretary of the Navy can be instantaneously communicated to the officers in the station at New-Orleans. The advantages of the telegraph ought of themselves to suggest the immediate establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans, for many occasions may arise—as have already occurred—where promptitude of action in relation to our affairs with Cuba—with Mexico and with other powers having possessions in the Caribbean sea, would be every thing to accomplish the objects of the government. With a permanent naval force in the Gulf, and with a navy-yard at New-Orleans for its rendezvous, a few hours only would be required to communicate the orders of the government, a few hours more would be all sufficient to place our vessels at the required point. The committee have reason to think that it can be satisfactorily demonstrated, that had there been a navy-yard at New-Orleans during the late war with Mexico, the saving alone in the cost of transporting munitions of war would have been more than sufficient to have established a navy-yard there, besides the great advantage of giving more efficiency to our naval military forces employed against Mexico.

"In connection with this view of the subject, there is another, which is well set forth in the memorial of the councils, but which cannot too frequently be impressed on the attention of the government. It is the great advantage which our naval force in the Pacific would derive from the establishment of a navy-yard at New-Orleans. There cannot be a doubt that war steamers will be the kind of naval force, which before long will be the one which will be mainly relied on for our purposes in the Pacific. The government very wisely has already ordered two or three of our steamers there. From New-Orleans, whence, as has already been shown by the committee, supplies for victualing, for repairs, and in the shape of munitions of war, can be had in full abundance of every variety, our steamers could be readily supplied. From the Pacific terminus of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec information can be transmitted to Washington via New-Orleans in less than five days. On this point, the memorial very properly says: 'It is difficult to over-estimate the importance to the government of this facility connected with the operations of our naval forces in the Pacific, for in the event of additional forces being required there, which will have to be sent from this side, or for supplies, or for articles of repair, orders can be immediately transmitted from Washington on the same day to New-Orleans, and from the supplies there, the wants of our Pacific squadron will at once be met. Over this very same route of Tehuantepec, which brought the quick intelligence demanding relief, can the materials required in the Pacific be transported in a short time at reasonable cost.'

"This view of the matter alone, without any other consideration, ought, in the opinion of the committee, to be sufficient to induce the government to establish forthwith a navy-yard at New-Orleans. But when it is borne in mind, that in a very short time a large amount of trade from the Asiatic world, and of great value, will pass over the various Isthmus routes, and will concentrate in the Caribbean sea and the Gulf; the necessity for an additional naval station in those waters will be apparent to all.

"In other respects New-Orleans is most advantageously situated for all the purposes of a navy-yard. Her distance from the ocean is sufficient for protection from sudden attack, and sufficiently near for prompt and efficient action to the vessels stationed there; in fact a naval force stationed at New-Orleans would prove the best protection to this city. A war steamer placed at the English Turn below the city would successfully defy the approach of an enemy in that quarter.

"The committee think the time has arrived when it is the imperative duty of this section of the country to demand from the general government an increase in the Gulf of a naval force, and of the kind suited to the improvement of modern naval armaments, with a navy-yard at New-Orleans. It has been the aim of the committee in the previous part of the report to show that it is not only the states of the valley of the Mississippi and those bordering on the Gulf, which are interested in a navy-yard at New-Orleans; but that all the Atlantic commercial states are equally interested with them."

## 2.—CANADIAN RECIPROCITY.

Six or eight months ago, we declared in the Review, that unless our government would take immediate measures to reciprocate the liberal policy of the Canadians, differential duties would be imposed by them against our manufactures, and all their canals closed to our commerce. The Canadian duties upon American produce average only about 12½ per cent., whilst our duties on theirs average as high as 23½ per cent.

The declaration which we made has proved almost a prophecy, as will appear in the extract we give from a late number of the Herald:

"The ministry, we learn by the papers, are about to adopt a policy of retaliation, in order to compel us to accede to their proposals for free trade with the British colonies. They threaten to exclude us from the Welland Canal, by raising the tolls levied on American vessels passing through that channel. They intend to propose prohibitory duties of seven and a half and twelve and a half per cent. on certain articles of merchandise imported from this country, and to allow the same articles to enter Canada, by the St. Lawrence, free of this additional duty."

Is it not extraordinary that a great commercial nation like the United States should ever be desirous to pursue a policy less liberal than her neighbors, and having experienced the benefit of free and unrestricted traffic between her own members, should not be willing to admit there is something essentially good and desirable in such traffic?

We extract from a memorial, prepared by Ira Gould, to be laid before the Board of Trade of Montreal, and addressed to the Governor-General.

1. That in the opinion of your Memorialists, it should be the policy and aim of the Provincial Government to seek for, and obtain, in the best practicable form, and in the speediest manner, *complete and entire free trade with the United States*, as well in all foreign articles imported into the two countries, as of articles the growth and manufacture of the same.

2. That in the opinion of your Memorialists, the only practicable way of securing this object is, by the adoption by the Provincial Government, of the American Tariff of Duties on all importations from sea, and by the free admission of the productions and manufactures of each country into the other; thus assimilating the commercial interests of the two countries in the way that is most desirable they should be assimilated.

3. That amongst the details of this arrangement would be included the complete extinction of all Custom-Houses on both sides of the frontier, retaining only those in Canada at the ports of Quebec and Montreal, and also of a just and equitable apportionment of the amount of duties received, to the government of each country.

4. That for the purpose of perfecting this arrangement, and as a further inducement thereto, the right of free navigation of the St. Lawrence, and our inland waters, with the use of our harbors and canals, should be granted to the United States upon the payment of the same tolls and dues as are paid by ourselves.

## 3.—THE SLAVEHOLDING STATES.

Dr. Daniel, in the Circular of the Southern Agricultural Society of Georgia, a paper we referred to in our last, thus concludes, in language all must admit to be strong and truthful:

"To the Slaveholding States a bountiful Providence has supplied every element of power and greatness. We have climates and soils which advantageously furnish the cereals and the grasses—hemp and flax. The best tobacco climate lies within the northern line of our dominion, and cotton, sugar and rice find the most suitable temperatures and soils further south. Many of the tropical fruits grow well on our southern borders. Our country is abundantly watered by the noblest rivers. Bays, inlets

and harbors indent our coasts. Our mountain ranges, with their rich table-lands, abound in coal, metals, and marbles. We have excellent climates for every season of the year. And now the enterprise of our state governments and numerous private companies are carrying the rail-road with accelerated progress in all directions, uniting our East with our West, combining our North with our South. All these afford capacity, facility and dispatch, to reward the cultivators of the soil, on whose labors repose the prosperity, the very life-blood of every other pursuit. These—all these invoke us to consult together, to devise and concert measures best calculated to elevate us and aggrandize our power, and to combine our energies and vindicate ourselves, our institutions, and our country,—and make it what God has decreed it shall be, great, powerful and beneficent to the purposes of civilization and Christianity, and consequently to the great cause of humanity.

#### 4.—THE ROAD TO WEALTH.

*The Road to Wealth*; a Practical Treatise on Business: or how to get, save, spend, give, lend, and bequeath money; with an inquiry into the chances of success, and causes of failure in business. By Edwin T. Freedley. Also, Prize Essays, statistics, miscellanies, and numerous private letters from successful and distinguished business men. Second Edition. Philadelphia: Lippencott, Grambo & Co. 1852.

*The Road to Wealth*—Every body is in search of it; they take the high-ways and the by-ways; they sunder consanguinities, affinities, friendships; they are at the poles, or the equator; they brave the deep, struggle with the savage, endure storm, lightnings, fatigues, privations of every earthly (sometimes every spiritual) good, in search of it. A hundred times they lose themselves, but still return to the search. A thousand roads are running this way, that way, the other way, crossing each other at right angles, obliquely, east, north, south, west, confounding themselves together, resembling each other in every respect; and yet one of these only is *THE ROAD*, whilst all the others are snares and traps, leading the unwary into bankruptcy and ruin. *How to find this right road!*

The book whose title is at the head of our article, proposes to teach the way. What a boon! Who will not buy—"put money in thy purse!"—*The Royal Road to Wealth!*

Mr. Freedley declares in his introduction, p. vi.:

"Inasmuch as one man's wisdom or experience would be very insufficient in this great search for truth, WHICH HAS A BIG BAG OF MONEY AT THE END, we have not undertaken to rely on our own acquired skill in money-making, but have made free with the knowledge of others. The princi-

ples, the facts, the maxims, we design to set forth, are partly original, and partly compiled. Few men have written books without saying something wise on the subject of money-getting, and what we have learned from divers sources respecting this matter may be found in the following pages."

The work embraces fifteen chapters:

- Chap. I. Business; Introductory.
- II. Business Education; Choice of Business.
- III. Habits of Business.
- IV. Getting Money.
- V. Getting Money by Farming.
- VI. & VII. do. by Merchandise.
- VIII. How to get Customers.
- IX. The True Man of Business.
- X. How to get Rich by Speculation.
- XI. Getting Money by Interest and Banking.
- XII. Getting Money by Inventions, Patent Medicines.
- XIII. How to become Millionaires; Opinions of Millionaires.
- XIV. Losing Money; Chances of Success; Causes of Failure.
- XV. Saving, Giving, Spending, Lending, and Bequeathing Money.

There is also a valuable Appendix, containing important statistics and some original notes of the experience of great money-makers, Rothschild, Barnum, Mr. Grigg, of Philadelphia, etc.

The chapter on "Millionaires, and how to be such," is one we would like to publish hereafter, (the author consenting,) inasmuch as ourselves and the majority of our readers would be satisfied with nothing short of this success. (Cannot some one show us how to achieve it out of the Review? Mr. Freedley's magic power falls short of this.) The experiences of Rothschild, Ricardo, Girard, Astor, Longworth, Freedley, McDonough, etc., are included here.

We are sure that the work before us will have a large sale. Every merchant, clerk, mechanic, lawyer, adventurer, will have it at any price, and particularly at the low one the author affixes. This is already proved in the rapid sale of two or three editions. It deserves success. Its maxims and morals are good, and one may discover that to serve God and make money are not necessarily incompatible, though, alas, how many have tried to evince the contrary in their actions!

The author intends publishing a new and enlarged edition soon, and requests information from every part of the Union. He desires the experiences of business men every where, their rules, habits, morals, etc. Those having such facts would do well to furnish them at once.

#### 5.—BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

*Naval Dry Docks of the United States.* By Charles B. Stuart, Engineer-in-Chief of the U. S. Navy. Illustrated with 29



fine engravings on steel. New-York: Charles B. Norton, Irving House.

The subjects treated are, New-York Navy Yard, and its history, location of dry dock, soil, coffer dam, earth work, bottom springs, piles, foundation, apron and masonry of dock, pump-well and culverts, engine-house, turning gates, floating culvert, and discharging gates, etc., etc. The purpose is to show the mode of constructing and working the naval dry docks of the United States, at the Navy Yards of New-York, Boston, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Pensacola, San Francisco, &c., floating dry docks, etc. The work is superbly printed, large quarto, on heavy white paper, interleaved, large type, and is altogether an honor to author and publisher. Every shipwright in England or America should have a copy, and we understand the demand is already large.

*Putnam's Home Cyclopedia*; in six vols., each complete in itself. New-York: George P. Putnam.

Vol. I, *The World's Progress, or Hand Book of Chronology and History*: a Dictionary of Dates, with tabular views of General History, and Historical Chart. A most useful volume for the library of every student and scholar, founded upon the tables of Talboys, the elaborate work of Haydn, and the labors of the editor, begun as a very early period of life. The series of which it is a part is intended to comprise a comprehensive view of the whole circle of human knowledge. The American articles are very complete, and are brought down to the date of publication. Ancient history, modern history, chronology, heathen deities, and general biography, are treated with equal minuteness.

*Essay on the Progress of Nations*, in civilization, productive industry, wealth, and population; illustrated by statistics of mining, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, coin, banking, internal improvements, emigration, and population. By Ezra C. Seaman.

This is a new edition published by Charles Scribner, of a work which first appeared in 1847 or 1848, and in a few of its articles the facts and figures are brought down to date. The author should, as an easy task, have completed all the others in an appendix. The work is a very much mixed-up affair—some politics, a little religion, any quantity of prejudice. Its statistics, so far as they go, are valuable. Had the writer been content with these, without showing himself a bitter partisan, he would have done well. In one place he speaks of the country as being "Tyler-ised and Burr-ised"—in another place refers to the course of the South upon the Texas question—"Avarice and ambition, two of the strongest passions which can operate upon the human mind, concurred to influence them in their course." But such passages abound. The work is intended as an attack upon Free Trade.

*Archibald Cameron; or Heart Trials*. Charles Scribner, New-York. A neat volume, telling a tale of real life more than fancy.

*The Lives of Winfield Scott and General Jackson*. By J. T. Headley. Scribner, New-York.

Even when the election shall be over, as it will be, perhaps, when this is read, Mr. Headley's sketch of General Scott, as the greatest general of the age, will live and be read. In regard to Jackson, the American people will never tire of hearing, and Mr. Headley may write just as many books upon him as he pleases. Mr. Headley declares in his preface that political matters had nothing to do with the appearance of the volume, and we are therefore bound to believe him. The volume will be as popular as any of his other eloquent productions.

*Pioneer Women of the West*. By Mrs. Ellet, author of the *Women of the American Revolution*. New-York: Scribner.

The biographies are prepared from original material in most cases, and are deeply interesting. They embrace the Boones, Inuis, Seviars, Shelbys, and twenty others.

*Life and Writings of Sidney*, with sketches of some of his contemporaries, and extracts from his correspondence and political writings. By G. Van Santvord. New-York: Scribner.

An admirable volume of 300 pages. Every one ambitious of high and honorable place in public life, should read the life and works of that true patriot and noble martyr to liberty, Algernon Sidney—a glorious name the world will not willingly let die.

*Outlines of Moral Science*. By Archibald Alexander. Scribner.

An interesting little volume which condenses a great deal in a small space, and which should be read with Paley, Butler, Wayland, Chalmers, etc., and form a part of the same library.

*Japan; Historical and Geographical, etc., to date*. By C. McFarlane, author of *British India*, with illustrations. New-York: Putnam.

As we are preparing an elaborate article upon the subject, reviewing this volume among others, we defer any further notice now.

*Witchcraft—A Tragedy in Five Acts*. By Cornelius Matthews. London: David Boyne. 1852.

This production is founded upon the witchcraft trials in New-England, which have had a world-wide celebrity. We have not space to enter upon its plot, which is admirably devised, or upon its material which is in the best style of the author, and altogether, we think, his *chef d'œuvre*. There are many passages of exquisite finish and thrilling interest, and the reader's

warmed-up fancies are not suffered to cool for an instant in the rapid progress of the piece.

"The scene of the tragedy is Salem, and the action of the piece develops with great dramatic force and truth to nature, a tragic story of dark superstition, ending in violence and death—a story, to the historical truthfulness of which the annals of Salem witchcraft bear testimony in blood. The purpose of the play is naturally exhibited in the gradual development of superstition in the minds of the credulous and ignorant. The imagination of the author has succeeded with wonderful, weird-like power, in surrounding his tragedy with a mysterious atmosphere, in which the reader seems to hear voices in the air, and to see the demon superstition stealing upon him as an apparition, approaching nearer, nearer, step by step, until it reveals itself in the tragic reality of death. Mr. Matthews has shown great power in the delineation of the emotions of the heart, and we can conceive nothing more pathetic than the exhibition in this tragedy of filial love, and of the struggle between this love and a soul awe-struck with superstition."

Mr. Matthews, though a young man, has long been known to the literary public, and has acquired laurels in every field he has entered. As a writer in the *New-York Review*, in its palmy days, in the *American Monthly*, the *Knickerbocker*, his reputation ranked high. In 1838 he published the "*Motley Book*," or Sketches of American Life, which was received with great favor. In 1839 appeared his "*Bohemian*, or the Mound Builders." His other efforts, as we can recall them, were the "*Politician*," a Comedy; "*Big Abel and the Little Manhattan*;" "*Puffer Hopkins*;" "*Money-penny, or the Heart of the World*;" "*Chanticleer*," etc. He is also the author of several plays besides *Witchcraft*, which have been performed frequently and with great success upon the stage in all the northern cities. His contributions have been also very numerous for the last fifteen years to many of the magazines and other journals of the North. It was high credit to Mr. Matthews that Philarete Charles, the celebrated French critic, should say of one of his productions: "Whatever may be the restrictions or the objections a fastidious and illiberal critic might be disposed to make or to oppose, it informs us a thousand times better about the true manners of the United States and their future, than many books of English or even French travelers. I have not failed to quote it in my public lectures at the college of France, as well as in various periodical works."

#### EDITORIAL NOTES.

##### CIRCULAR OF PATENT OFFICE.

The Commissioner of the Patent Office has issued his annual circular, calling for information, which we hope will be liberally fur-

nished him from all parts of the republic, upon the state of the following crops, etc.: Wheat, corn, oats, barley, grasses, dairies, neat cattle, horses and mules, sheep and wool, hogs, cotton, sugar cane, rice, tobacco, hemp, root crops, potatoes, fruits, manures, etc. He desires replies before the 1st of January.

The wide circulation given to the Patent Office Reports, renders it desirable that all new facts and discoveries of practical value, relating to American husbandry, be recorded in them, and thus preserved in a permanent form for the use of the public.

The third and closing volume of the *Industrial Resources of the South and West*, has been issued from the press, the prospectus of which will be found on our next page. Price for the 3 vols., handsomely bound, \$10, postage free.

Our portrait and biography for the present number is omitted from a disappointment with the engraver. Next month we shall give Maunsel White, of New-Orleans, and E. Howard, of Tennessee.

We cannot but feel grateful for the following resolution, offered by Mr. Segar, and adopted unanimously by the Virginia Internal Improvement Convention, held last September near the White Sulphur Springs:

*Resolved*, That *De Bow's Review*, as the organ of Internal Improvement, and other Industrial interests of the Southern and Western States, recommends itself to the consideration and support of this Convention, and the people of Virginia generally.

We are indebted to Dr. Cartwright, of New-Orleans, the able physiologist, for a copy of his very interesting letter, addressed in reply to queries from Dr. C. R. Hall, of England, in regard to the *Philosophy of the Negro Constitution*. In our next number we shall make a few extracts from this paper, and from several others by the same gentleman.

A. Hutchinson, of Miss., proposes to publish in a short time a work entitled,

*Manual of Juridical, Ministerial and Civil Forms*; Revised, Americanized, and divested of useless verbiage: Comprising the Process, Proceedings and Entries, before Justices of the Peace, and in the Inferior, Superior and Appellate Courts of Mississippi, with Illustrations of the Author's System of Opening and Conducting the Clerk's Offices. Also, Conveyances, Mortgages, Trusts, and the various instruments in popular use.

The reputation acquired by Mr. Hutchinson in his compilation of the Code of Mississippi, bespeaks his eminent success in the present undertaking, and we recommend the work to the profession. Henry Isaacson, Clerk of this Review in New-Orleans, will receive the names of persons desirous of subscribing. Price, \$5.

*Finis*, at Nashville, is informed that our new Rail-road map will not be ready for some time. We refer him to the one we published in the August No., 1851, and have sent to our agents at Nashville, York & Co., a very handsome, late one, which he will call for and get.

Those who order the Industrial Resources are informed that they can have the volumes of the Review hereafter bound uniformly with it, by sending them to our office, at 50 cents per volume.

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Conveyancing, and all other instruments of writing, legal or commercial, carefully and neatly drawn on paper or on parchment.

Land Titles examined, and defective Titles perfected, when practicable. Title-papers, and other instruments, recorded in any of the record offices throughout the state.

Orders for the purchase or sale of slaves, or real estate, faithfully executed. Sugar and cotton plantations, and unimproved lands in various sections of the state, for sale. Claims against the Republic of Texas, and against private individuals, received for collection and prosecuted. The payment of taxes in all the counties of the state, carefully attended to; and property which may have been sold for taxes in the several counties, redeemed. Maps of all the principal counties, with the original surveys, are now preparing for this office; and abstracts of all original land titles granted by the states of Coahuila and Texas, and by the late Republic of Texas, can be examined at the General Agency Office.

The undersigned have known Mr. A. F. James, as a citizen of Galveston, for the last eleven years, during most of which time he has been engaged in the above business, for which we believe him well qualified, and recommend him to such as require the services of an Agent in Texas, as a gentleman in whom the fullest confidence may be reposed.

EDWARD HILL, *President*  
*Galveston Chamber of Commerce.*  
J. BATES, U. S. M.

M. B. MENARD, *President*  
*Galveston City Company.*  
JOHN C. WATROUS,  
*Judge of the Dist. Court of the U. S.*

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*Yours truly*

*G. Hammond*

Engr'd by F. Grisch, expressly for the Review New Orleans

allay of Industry & Enterprise